Modular PhD in Applied Linguistics

Modules I, II, & II:

VARIATION IN ACADEMIC WRITING AMONG GENERATION 1.5 LEARNERS, NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING LEARNERS AND ESL LEARNERS: THE DISCOURSAL SELF OF G1.5 STUDENT WRITERS

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OVERVIEW

This thesis appears in three parts: Modules I, II, & III. The purpose of these units was to argue that Generation 1.5 (G1.5) learners are a distinct group of English language learners with unique ways of representing themselves in academic writing, and to identify those salient linguistic differences among G1.5, traditional ESL, and NS student writers Using multiple methodologies, the text explores the discourse patterns of G1.5 students in their academic writing. Elements in each section include:

- Module I:
    - A discussion and literature review of research on Generation 1.5 students and design criteria for an extended corpus study.
- Module II:
    - A pilot study of early results from a corpus study comparing G1.5, ESL, and NES student academic writing, with a focus of pronoun and modal use.
- Module III:
    - A study involving surveys and interviews to evaluate what both students and instructors consider *good* academic writing and expect of student essays.
    - Corpus data from G1.5, ESL, and NS student corpora to determine lexico-grammatical and syntactic patterns in G1.5 student writers and how they differ from both ESL and NS students. Salient features are analyzed using a framework where features are mapped onto an adapted version of Halliday's (2004) three macrofunctions of language, allowing for an analysis of semantic and lexico-grammatical features in terms of ideational, interpersonal, and textual positioning.
    - Case studies of three essays to test corpus results and a framework of self-representation against individual performance.

The resulting text concludes that G1.5 students' self-representation in writing is distinct from other student writers, and manifests in their semantic choices, narrative style, and elements of a hybrid of academic and personal/interpersonal writing.

The text appearing herein is presented as it was to examiners at the University of Birmingham, U.K.; however, page numbers (in text and in Table of Contents entries) have been changed to reflect page numbers in a single document, rather than three individual documents.

Modular PhD in Applied Linguistics

Module I:

VARIATION IN ACADEMIC WRITING AMONG GENERATION 1.5 LEARNERS, NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING LEARNERS AND ESL LEARNERS: AN ARGUMENT FOR CORPUS STUDY

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ABSTRACT

By examining current literature and surveying ESL students at a U.S. university, I argue in this study that accepted research on ESL pedagogy is based on a faulty definition of who the populations of ESL students are in U.S. colleges and universities, and suggest that studies in corpus linguistics and discourse analysis can provide more accurate data in order to improve pedagogy and provide more effective learning situations for students. Investigations of past and present studies on the make-up of ESL populations are reviewed, as well as research on the development of ESL materials and pedagogical theories. In light of the findings, it is shown that studies on discourse analysis and the empirical data provided in corpus linguistic studies provide a more accurate picture of actual language use and point out the inaccuracies in the materials used to teach and improve English writing by non-native English-speaking students. The study concludes by discussing the design criteria for a future corpus study which will try to accurately identify linguistic and stylistic features of the two populations of ESL students as compared to a native speaker control group.

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SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research study is twofold. First, I argue that the "ESL" label used to identify students in American colleges and universities is inaccurate and has resulted in ineffective materials and methods for teaching students to be effective academic writers. Additionally, I contend that, to teach writing effectively to diverse students of non-English backgrounds, researchers and instructors from various disciplines, such as ESL, EAP, and ELT, must look to studies in corpus linguistics and discourse analysis to reevaluate existing views on academic writing pedagogy and make a critical evaluation of how our diverse population of non-native English speaking students are being instructed.

1.1 Motivation and methodology

My motivation for this PhD research is based on personal experience and the perceived need of many of the students I teach at The Pennsylvania State University at Erie, The Behrend College (PSU Erie) where I am a lecturer in English. After several years of teaching both freshman composition classes and technical writing classes[1], it became clear to me (and to many colleagues with whom I had conversations) that a large part of our student population was not being served and this was causing a great deal of frustration to students and instructors alike. These students were identified as ESL students and I began researching their numbers at PSU Erie.

PSU Erie is a branch campus of The Pennsylvania State University system, a major research university and a collection of 24 colleges and campuses around the state. PSU Erie offers 2-year, 4-year, and post graduate degrees and has a student body of about 3700. It is the only campus of the university which offers degrees in Plastics Engineering and in

[1] I hold M.A. degrees in Comparative Literature and Linguistics as well as TESL certification, and have extensive teaching experience; therefore I was hired to teach a variety of courses including various literature and language classes when necessary. For purposes of this research, however, it is my background, experience, and interest in ESL which is relevant.

Management Information Systems, though these are not the only degree programs. It is also one of only two public (state) universities in the greater Erie area, which means it is a more affordable option for higher education than the private colleges in our area[2]. This attracts a diverse student population: students from the area who are looking for affordable education in a variety of disciplines as well as students from distances away who wish to pursue degree studies in specific and highly competitive programs.

Prior to the fall, 2003 the college did not offer any designated ESL classes nor any support services, such as tutoring, which were specifically geared to non-native English speakers and their concerns and needs. From examining data from 1999-2003 which I obtained from the admissions office, I learned that the college was experiencing a growth of approximately 100% per academic year of students entering the college who were either traveling on international visas or who were believed to be non- native speakers of English but permanent residents/citizens. The growth rate here is only an approximation because the university has no mechanism (and indeed is prohibited by law from having such a mechanism) to identify those applicants from U.S. high schools who are not native-born. The figures are an approximation based on visa records (for international students), high school data, course reports, and name recognition. The consistent and large increase was evidence the college accepted to begin a trial ESL class and support program.

Because of the need, beginning in the fall, 2003, the university allowed a section of freshman composition to be taught with a focus on ESL. Additionally writing tutors were (and still are) trained to work with ESL students. Any student who enrolls in the ESL section of freshman composition must also enroll in a tutoring course which means that they must meet at least once weekly with a tutor who is assigned to work exclusively with them during

[2] Because tuition at public universities is subsidized by the state, the cost to students is significantly lower than the cost to attend a private university. For example, tuition fees at PSU Erie are $625.00 per credit hour, as compared to over $1000.00 per credit hour at the local private institutions.

the course of the term. Therefore, these students are essentially attending a minimum of four class sessions per week: three class sessions all together with the lecturer and a fourth session which is a private session for them to work with their tutor on their specific issues and/or assignments.

Having a background in EAP teaching, I developed the curriculum for this class based on established texts and existing programs. I was, however, surprised and concerned to realize that the population of the voluntary[3] ESL class was not what I expected or had previously taught. This class was not made up entirely of international students who had come to the U.S. to pursue a university degree, but also included a large number of students who had graduated from U.S. high schools but were not native born and, though having years in U.S. schools, were still not *proficient* enough in English to pass the rigors of freshman composition. After four terms of teaching this class, it became clear to me that the linguistic differences and skills of these two very different learner groups were playing important roles in their abilities to produce viable academic writing.

In order to gain a more complete understanding of the situation, I began collating information from ESL classes held from the fall 2003 through spring 2005, which includes six terms and four classes. There were approximately 65 students enrolled in the four classes; of those 65 students, thirty-eight came as immigrants to the U.S. as school age children and graduated from American[4] high schools. They had arrived from countries as diverse as the Ukraine, Bosnia, Serbia, Chad, Somalia, Vietnam, and Korea. Twenty-seven students could be labeled as international students, that is, students recently arrived in the U.S. and traveling

[3] I need to mention here that these students voluntarily enrolled in the ESL composition class. There were/are numerous other students at PSU Erie who can be considered international students or non-native English speaking students but did not choose to enroll in the ESL class for reasons of scheduling, stigma, or other. Problems of identifying these students will be discussed later in this paper.

[4] "American" here is used loosely to refer to the United States and/or those citizens who are native to the U.S.

on visas to study at university. This indicates that 58% of the *ESL* students are in fact immigrant students who have graduated from American high schools.

Equally as surprising were the dropout figures for this student group. Prior to offering ESL services, 92% of those students identified (albeit informally) as immigrant students dropped out of college after one year. At the end of the two academic years during which ESL classes were offered, 100% of the international students (unchanged from previous years) are still enrolled in university and 82% of the immigrant students are still enrolled. While this is great progress, it still means that 18% of these students dropped out of their university courses presumably due to academic difficulties[5]. In an attempt to learn more about both learner groups, I consulted the literature. In examining recent research in second language acquisition (SLA) and English language teaching (ELT), there seems to be little that is helpful in detailing the specific linguistic ways in which these two learner groups differ. The primary reason, however, that research does not help with the problem is that most SLA and ELT studies are done by researchers in ESL settings where the participants are international multilingual students. In fact, Harklau (Matsuda et al. 2003:153) argues that it is only within the last five years that explicit pedagogical interest has focused on *Generation 1.5 learners*. Rumbaut and Ima (1988:1-2) first used the term **1.5 generation** and distinguished these students from multilingual international students, explaining that:

> "they are those young people who were born in their countries of origin but formed in the U.S. (that is, they are completing their education in the U.S. during the key formative periods of adolescence and early adulthood);….they are in many ways marginal to both new and old worlds, for while they straddle both worlds they are in some profound sense fully part of neither of them. Though they differ greatly from each other in cultural and social class origins, and in many other respects as well, they generally share a common psycho- historical location in terms of their age and their migration status role, and in terms of developing bicultural strategies of response and adjustment to that unique position they occupy at '1.5ers' – in the

[5] I am interpreting here that the reason for dropout is academic difficulty based on conversations with the students and also on information from the admissions office. Statistics from admissions indicated that the students who dropped out had been put on academic probation their first term and did not improve their grades sufficiently during their second term

> interstices, as it were, between first and second generation, between being 'refugees' and being 'ethnics' (or 'hyphenated Americans').

While L2 research is extensive, little of it has been focused on non-international multilingual learners and none has focused on the differences between the two major groups of ESL learners. Research on Generation 1.5 writers at the college level is still in its early stages of development and, as Harklau (Matsuda et al. 2003:153-154) argues, that research has only begun on this issue because these students are in some colleges, like PSU Erie, where they are outnumbering the traditional international learner. Harklau (2000 & 2001) and Smoke (2001) report on the contentious issues of writing program curricula and placement practices. Benesch (1996, 1999a, 2001) argues that political and economic considerations motivate curriculum and services for these students at least as much, if not more, than instructional principles.

I could find little research on linguistic features of non-international multilingual writers. What I did find includes Valdes (1992) where the author defines some characteristics and makes some curricula suggestions. Ferris (1999, 2002) and Fleischman & Hopstock (1999) deal with error treatment in immigrant student writing, and Thonus (2003) discusses problems with writing and tutor response to Generation 1.5 student writing. However, there has yet to be a comprehensive study on the specific linguistic problems displayed in writing by these students, nor has there been extensive work on the specific linguistic differences displayed by the two major learner groups. Thus, the need for this study is timely.

1.2 Purpose and goals of research

In order to make clear my intentions and the purpose for this research, I will give a brief explanation of my reasoning and plan. In Module I, I take the position that to teach writing effectively to diverse students of non-English backgrounds, researchers and instructors from across such disciplines as second language acquisition (SLA), English as a

second language (ESL), English language teaching (ELT), foreign language teaching (FLT), English composition, and corpus linguistics need to come together to reexamine existing views on academic writing pedagogy and make a critical evaluation of how a large segment of university freshman composition students are being instructed. The field of L2 writing is a dynamic one which can benefit from cross-disciplinary dialogue and be strengthened and made more effective by developing processes and practices which engage and include the ever-changing body of students.

The *ESL* label has been used at colleges and universities in the U.S. to refer to all those students who are not native speakers of English. Spack (1997:765) observes that

> "Students are remarkably diverse, and thus no one label can accurately capture their heterogeneity…It may be that we use labels such as ESL…to provide us with a shared shorthand by which we can talk about learners. But even if our reasons are well intentioned, we need to consider that, in the process of labeling students, we put ourselves in the powerful position of rhetorically constructing their identities, a potentially hazardous enterprise. At worst, a label may imply that we sanction an ethnocentric stance. At the very least, it can lead us to stigmatize, to generalize, and to make inaccurate predictions about what students are likely to do as a result of their language or cultural background."

This ESL label then elicits different responses from all those who hear it. For many instructors an ESL label indicates a student who will be problematic for them; for other instructors, it is an opportunity to expand the world view of everyone in class. For students themselves, the label can be a misnomer. For many international students who come to the U.S. for university, the label is meaningless or suggests that they are here to study English, not engineering or whatever degree program they are enrolled in. And for immigrant students who have been in the country for years and have graduated from American high schools, the label is often stigmatizing and doesn't reflect their vision of themselves as integrated into the culture of their peers.

For those schools with ESL programs and/or courses, *ESL* has often come to mean classes in writing, reading, grammar and perhaps speaking and listening. The materials used are typically prepared with the international student in mind. That is, research (Benesch 2001:5-23, Harklau 2003:2, Harklau, Losey & Siegal 1999:1-12) has shown that most ESL materials used in classes today are written for students with extant instruction in English grammar and reading and with strong academic training. Moreover, researchers (Biber & Reppen 2002:199-201, Clear 2000:20-22, Ferris 2002:34-37, Granger 1998:6-7, Harklau 2003, Hoey 2000:40-41, Valdes 1992) argue that most of these materials were designed with an intuitive sense of what grammatical structures students most need and not on an actual account of what structures students actually need to use and reproduce in a variety of contexts.

The problem with these materials of course is that they are suited for only a portion of the ESL populations encountered in college and university programs. Few, if any, schools today can boast of an ESL population made up solely of individuals who are in the U.S. on student visas, are in the U.S. to earn university degrees only, are well-schooled in formal learning of English language skills, and have excellent academic backgrounds and study skills. Most colleges and universities today are not blessed with the resources to house full time intensive English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs or an ESL population who can afford it. The students represent a mix of ESL students with varying backgrounds and needs in terms of materials and services available to them. What many educators and researchers are realizing is that this simple labeling system is ineffective in terms of identifying students and their needs.

An examination is needed of the true makeup of the ESL population and of the efficacy of the materials and methods being used to teach/train them to be successful learners at the academy and beyond. In order to create effective programs for students, educators

need to rely less on tradition and give more attention to both the make-up of the ESL student population and to empirical data which illustrates actual language use and therefore actual needs of the students. What I hope to do then in Module I is re-examine the make up of the population who comprise the ESL student groups in most U.S. colleges and universities and to argue for the value of corpus linguistic studies in terms of providing *real life* examples of language use in the academy in order to reconsider the language structures which are and should be taught to students. First, in Section 2, I will argue that the ESL population must be redefined and suggest that there are at least two broad categories of ESL students in the academy today and that these populations have significantly different needs in terms of their language acquisition backgrounds. I will support this claim with research from the fields of SLA, ESL/EFL, ELT/FLT, and corpus linguistics, as well as with information gleaned from interviews I conducted with students at PSU Erie. Focusing on issues of writing/composition, Section 3 examines the current state of EAP today with regards to materials used and theories of academic writing pedagogy. I also compare SLA and corpus research study findings. In Section 4, I will look to discourse analysis and corpus linguistics as a method to investigate learner discourse, lexis and grammar. Finally, in Section 5, I will outline my intended research studies for Modules II and III, which will be based on corpus data collected from students at PSU Erie and will (hopefully) identify differences in the academic writing of the two primary groups of ESL students.

My intent here is to argue for a cross-disciplinary process for improving learner outcomes by eliminating traditional associations with the *ESL* label and examining the reality of learner populations and needs.

SECTION 2:
THE ESL/EFL POPULATIONS IN U.S. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

In this section, I will identify the two main populations of students which make up the ESL learner groups in American colleges and universities. I will discuss their demographic makeup as well as differences in linguistic and academic preparedness. In addition to current literature, I will also refer to data collected and interviews I conducted with students at PSU Erie.

Every college and university in the U.S. is facing the opportunities and challenges of adapting to an increasingly diverse student body. This includes diversity within ESL student populations as well. ESL composition specialist Ilona Leki succinctly states that "the only similarity [ESL students] share is that they are not native speakers of English" (1992:39). Historically, ESL students were assumed to be those students who came to the U.S. as internationals, students traveling on visas to study at the university level. Researchers (Benesch 2001, Harklau 2003, Harklau & Losey & Siegal 1999, Singhal 2004, Valdes 1992) point out that these students typically have been academically accomplished students, often post graduate students, who have had formal classroom training in English instruction and are academically literate in their first language (L1). Not usually included in this definition have been bilingual English learners graduating from U.S. secondary schools with varying degrees of accomplishment in their academics and in their English learning skills. Yet this population in particular has been growing steadily, bringing with them unique needs and challenges.

By way of confirming or denying the literature, I contacted via email the 65 students who enrolled in the ESL class offered over the past six terms. Twelve students responded and agreed to fill out a questionnaire and be interviewed; this number represents 18% of the total

enrollment in the four classes. Seven of these students could be considered Generation 1.5 students and five students are international students; this distinction is made based on the students' age and length of time in the U.S. prior to starting university studies. I asked the students to fill out a questionnaire which asked for information about their age, gender, first language, additional languages, English language instruction, and more (see Appendix I for a sample questionnaire). In addition, I asked these students in interviews to detail more completely their English language training (or lack thereof), what services they were provided for language instruction (if they came as immigrants), and experiences in college. Table 1 illustrates the basic demographic data collated by the surveys, and details of interviews will be discussed below.

	Generation 1.5 Students	***International Students***
Age	17-21 years old	17-21 years old
Gender	5 female/2 male	2 female/3 male
Length of time in U.S. before beginning university	4-10 years	2 weeks-3 months
Nationalities	Ukrainian, Albanian, Bosnian, Puerto Rican (this student identified himself as American), Somali, Vietnamese, Russian	Chinese, Chinese (from Hong Kong), Turkish, Mexican, Indian
First Languages spoken	Ukrainian, Albanian, Bosnian, Spanish, Somali, Vietnamese, Russian	Cantonese, Mandarin, Turkish, Spanish, Hindi
Formal English instruction before arriving in U.S.?	No	Yes, in grammar, reading, writing, listening, speaking, literature
Formal English instruction after arriving in U.S.?	No	n/a

Table 1: Demographic information on interviewed students

2.1 International student learners

In general, international students are thought to be those learners who come to the U.S. to study and will return to their home countries when their studies are complete. They are usually from upper or middle class backgrounds and are well educated in their home language as well as in various subject matters and are strongly literate in academic strategies. Valdes (1992:93-94) points out that they have studied English formally and tend to have

strong reading and writing skills in English because of the kind of English classes they have had. In general, they have scored a minimum of 525 on a TOEFL test or equivalent in order to be accepted at a U.S. university. Valdes (ibid.) also refers to these learners as "elective bilinguals", learners who choose to become bilingual but whose L1 still remains for them the language of greater prestige and dominant usage; they choose this as individuals. These students will for the most part will finish their advanced studies and return to their home countries and chosen professions.

Among these international students background and training can vary. Research (Cammish 1997, Ferris 1999:144-145, Leki, 1992:39-46) suggests that attitudes, motivation, methodologies, and teacher training and techniques vary widely from country to country. If these students have received traditional EFL learning, their focus would have been on developing reading and writing skills which can leave them with problems with aural and oral skills as well as deficient social and cultural knowledge. John[6], a student from mainland China at PSU Erie, told me during an interview that he found it difficult to adjust to the "American way of teaching" which required him to participate in collaborative group projects and oral class discussions.

Some of the difficulties international students experience when coming to a U.S. university can include awkward social adjustments and, as Cammish (1997:144) points out, extreme tiredness due to the effort required to listen to extended lectures in English. These findings were supported in an interview with another student, Stephanie, age 19, from Hong Kong, who said that she felt fully confident in her English skills before arriving in the U.S. However, when she began classes, she felt awkward speaking and had difficulties understanding lectures because of the "American accents". She also reported being very tired

[6] For purposes of confidentiality, names of students have been changed.

at the end of a class day from trying to listen and take notes during lectures, particularly in larger classes where there was less instructor-student interaction.

The goals and objectives of these students must be considered as well. International students will primarily write in English as part of their academic coursework only. For the most part, they will return to their home countries where the majority of their communication will be in their L1, though many will continue on in graduate school in the U.S. or conduct international projects of varying kinds which might require English language skills. John, the student from mainland China, indicated in our interview that coming to an American university was a failure and a poor second choice because it meant he could not get accepted at a prestigious Chinese university, and that he was anxious to complete his undergraduate and graduate studies in engineering so he could return to China. This attitude was mirrored by students from other countries as well.

2.2 Generation 1.5 learners

While Rumbaut and Ima were the first to consider the different populations and backgrounds of English language learners in U.S. schools, their ***1.5 generation*** definition must be expanded to include those students from, for example, Puerto Rico and other parts of the United States where English is not the community language. In fact, since the mid-1960s, the make up of the societal and therefore school populations has shifted dramatically. Several researchers (Harklau & Losey & Siegal 1999:1-12, Singhal 2004:1-3, Wurr 2004:14-15) report that, until very recently, immigration populations have been increasing due to changes in immigration laws. Wars and other political situations worldwide have gifted the U.S. with large groups of refugees from Southeast Asia, Eastern Europe, Central America, Africa, and the Caribbean. Concurrently, census and school data indicate that populations of indigenous language minority groups have been growing at a rapid rate. In her description of 1.5 Generation students, Singhal (2004:1-2) includes what she calls “in-migrants”, those

students who migrate from U.S. territories like Puerto Rico; "native-born native speakers", those students who are born in the U.S. but live in ethnic and linguistic enclave communities; and "transitionals", those students whose families have patterns of migrating back and forth. The result is a large population of bilingual English learners endowing schools with considerable variation and challenges with regards to their needs.

For a variety of political and social reasons too numerous and far beyond the scope of this paper to detail, the majority of 1.5 students have often been "tracked" (Benesch 2001:88-89, Matsuda et. al. 2003:153, Oakes 1985), or labeled, as *remedial* rather than as nonnative speakers of English and therefore have not been given appropriate language instruction before mainstreaming them into regular classrooms during their K-12 [ages 5-18] years. Illustrated in my interview with Anna, a 21-year-old student at PSU Erie and an immigrant to America from The Ukraine, this lack of appropriate language instruction is described. Anna explained that she arrived in the U.S. at the age of nine with no background in formal English at all; in fact, her only exposure to English had been through occasional pieces of music. She was placed in a fourth grade classroom, the only nonnative speaker, with a teacher who had no ESL training. The only instruction in English she received was a weekly one hour session with a teacher-tutor who would show her flashcards of English vocabulary words. In other words, at nine years old, Anna became responsible for her own English instruction while trying to adjust to the social and cultural demands of immigration to a new country. This story was repeated over and over throughout my interviews with students who immigrated to different parts of the U.S.

Harklau, Losey, & Siegal (1999:1-12) and Fleischman & Hopstock (1993) point out that, though their numbers are growing exponentially, these students are being given little in the way of language instruction and are graduating from U.S. secondary schools with cumulative grade point averages which do not accurately reflect their linguistic preparedness

for university work. However, because they have graduated from American high schools, they, as well as administrators and faculty at university, expect that they are prepared for college. Olga, a student from Russia, immigrated to America at age 14 and was put directly into mainstream classes though she had not taken EFL classes in Russia. Because of attentive teachers, Olga reported in our interview that she was given extra time for assignments in high school, obtained textbooks in Russian in order to be able to study, and graduated high school with an almost perfect grade point average. She was completely overwhelmed during her first year at PSU Erie and nearly dropped out because she was not linguistically prepared, unable to get comparable textbooks in Russian, and therefore unable to use the strategies that made her successful in high school. This also frustrated her instructors who, based on her high school grades, expected her to be an outstanding student; Olga reported in fact that at least two of her instructors advised her to dropout of college because she would not be successful because of her deficiency in English[7].

Goldsmidt & Ziemba (2003:39-40) argue that often these students must drop many of their general education courses, like history, psychology, sociology, and more, because they cannot keep up with the reading and writing components. Certainly this research is confirmed by the dropout figures at PSU Erie discussed above and in interviews. Tony, for example, a student from Bosnia, left PSU Erie after one semester because, though he had been considered a good student in high school, could not manage in English the amount of reading and studying required of a university student.

Nonetheless, Harklau, Losey & Siegal (1999:1-12) and Wurr (2004:14-15) report that there has been dramatic growth in the numbers of linguistically diverse students entering college by way of U.S. public school education. Postsecondary schools do not collect data on

[7] I am happy to report that Olga did not take the negative advice of those instructors, is finishing her third year at PSU Erie, and expects to graduate in May 2006.

the native languages of U.S. residents or citizens; however Harklau (Matsuda et al. 2003:153-155) and Lay et. al. (1999:175-177) argue that at some institutions, particularly 2-year urban colleges, students from non-English speaking backgrounds already do or will soon make up the majority of entering students.

With vastly different backgrounds, motivations and English language training than the international students, the Generation 1.5 students, or "circumstantial bilinguals" (Valdes 1992:94-95), find themselves in a situation where they must learn another language to survive; this is not an individual decision, but usually done as a group, family, or community. Many researchers (Blanton 1999, *English as a Second Language Discipline* 2005, Ferris 1999, Goldschmidt & Ziemba 2003, Harklau 2003, Singhal 2004, Smoke 2001, Thonus 2003) report that, unlike international students with fully developed L1 skills, these learners often come to the U.S. before having fully learned the writing systems and academic registers of their L1s. Their social and verbal skills are usually more advanced than those of international students who have spent much less time in country. Because they are intimately familiar with the culture and schooling in the U.S., having spent some of their K-12 years in the U.S., they often do not consider themselves ESL students, though their academic skills are not as developed as international students and they generally have had little, if any, English language instruction.

The goals and objectives of Generation 1.5 students are distinctive from international students as well. Whereas international students need a mastery of academic English to succeed, Valdes (1992:93-94) and Raimes (1991:250-252) point out that Generation 1.5 students need to be able to write in English for a wider range of purposes and for years beyond the academy: academic, workplace, social, and more. Their linguistic development is crucial for them to succeed in the academy and beyond.

2.3 Academic differences between Generation 1.5 and International students

Based on the research of Singhal (2004) and others, Table 2 below outlines some of the general characteristics of Generation 1.5 students versus international students.

Generation 1.5 Learners	***International Student learners***
Nontraditional ESL Learners Circumstantial Bilinguals (Valdes 1992) These students were born or came to the U.S. when they were young. They are culturally like the average American teenager but do tend to follow traditional customs and expectations at home. Some Generation 1.5 students exhibit dialect features rather than ESL features because they identify with a particular ethnic/racial group such as Latinos or African-Americans.	Traditional ESL Learners Elective Bilinguals (Valdes 1992) These students are recent arrivals to the US and have come to complete a university degree. Typically they come as undergraduate or graduate students and expect to return to their home countries upon degree completion. These students generally come from middle and upper class backgrounds. They often encounter social or cultural awkwardness in early days in the US.
Ear learners For the most part, they have learned English by listening, and not through extensive reading and writing. Many may also be living at home or in communities where English is not the dominant language. Their language may exhibit both community dialect features and English learner features	Book Learners For the most part, they have learned English through formal instruction, primarily focusing on reading and writing. Teacher-training and techniques in their home countries can vary greatly.
Limited knowledge of home language These students are often academically illiterate in their L1. Some do not know how to speak, read or write in their home language. Some older Generation 1.5 students often serve a translators to facilitate communication between their parents and younger siblings.	Literate in L1 These students are often quite accomplished students in their L1 and usually have extensive background in their L1 writing systems and academic registers.
Growing knowledge of English While their knowledge of English continues to improve in college, they tend to lag behind native speakers in reading and writing skills. They tend to perceive their needs, however, as less about learning EAP and more about learning a wider range of linguistic skills to help them beyond the classroom.	Growing knowledge of EAP Their knowledge of English language and American culture continues to grow in college, but their primary focus is on learning the kind of English skills necessary to help them succeed in their coursework.
Good oral/aural skills These students often sound like native speakers because they learned English from speaking and listening to it. They have also been immersed in school life and culture in the U.S. and are comfortable with it. They can usually explain ideas through oral communication and tend to have well-developed communicative strategies to compensate for morpho-syntactic problems. Because they are aural learners, non-salient grammatical structures are missing from their linguistic repertoire.	Less developed oral/aural skills If trained in a traditional ESL environment, their focus would not have been so much on speaking and listening skills. Though most would have a great deal of exposure to English through media, they tend to have "strong accents" and get quite tired when listening to long lectures in English.
Inexperienced readers and writers For the most part, these students have read novels and fiction in high school and are not familiar with a variety of academic texts. They have been prematurely mainstreamed, placed in ESL classes, or placed in remedial classes. Others may have taken honors classes in various subject areas in high school but have limited academic vocabulary. They have received almost no grammar instruction and are not familiar with parts of speech or the language of grammar.	Experienced readers and writers For the most part, these students have done a good deal of reading and writing in English and are experienced test takers, having to take standardized tests like TOEFL and/or ILETS exams. They have received extensive grammar instruction.

Table 2: General Characteristics of Generation 1.5 Students vs. International Students
(Adapted from: Singhal 2004:2; includes information from Cammish 1997, Ferris, 1999, Leki 1992, Valdes 1992)

Even among Generation 1.5 students, differences in their specific needs and difficulties make it difficult to classify them as a homogeneous group. Valdes (1992:98) detailed her "circumstantial bilinguals" further by their level of L2 proficiency. She says, "The acquisition of English…depends both on the nature of the community in which they settle and on the amount of exposure they have to English in their everyday lives." She argues that levels of bilingualism change for individuals over time and she distinguishes between "incipient circumstantial bilinguals" and "functional bilinguals" (ibid: 99-102) and further argues that these distinctions are crucial for developing appropriate learning situations for these students. Incipient bilinguals are those learners still in the process of learning English and still needing ESL classes; in other words, the incipient stage refers to the length of time it takes the learner to reach a certain functional ability to communicate in the L2. Functional bilinguals are those students who may no longer be considered English language learners but have learned nonstandard forms that persist, for example, fossilized forms like past tense verbs or past participles with missing *–ed* endings. Table 3 details Valdes' definitions and stages.

Type of bilingual learner	**Length of incipient stage (period of L2 acquisition)**	**Features of L2 use in functional stage once learner passes from incipient stage**
Adult learner with good access to L2 speakers	4 years	Remains L1 preferrent in all domains; can function in L2 in most contexts and domains
Child learner	2 years	Becomes L2 preferrent in all domains; avoids using L1[8]; L1 features still reflected in L2 production
Adult learner with limited or sporadic access to L2	10 years -	Reaches limited functional stage only; remains L1 preferrent; interacts primarily with monolingual speakers of L1 or with bilingual speakers.

Table 3: Stages of Incipient and Functional Bilingualism
(Adapted from: Valdes 1992: 100)

[8] This feature is arguable; personal evidence from students at PSU Erie suggests that many students who arrive as refugees still communicate with peers as well as family members in L1, with no avoidance techniques at all. Further investigation needs to be done in this area.

Valdes indicates time frames in her description of the stages of bilingualism. What is missing from Valdes' table are indications of the length of time it takes a learner to move from the functional stage to a native or fully developed stage and the characteristics that would distinguish this. This is due to the fact that no firm criteria have been developed to determine when an individual has *officially* passed from the incipient bilingual stage to the functional stage to a fully developed stage.

Moreover, the ability to develop proficiency in the academic register of an L2 is significantly different than developing oral interpersonal language skills. Many researchers (Collier 1989, Ferris 1999, Hartman & Tarone 1999, Valdes 1992) seem to agree that L2 learners will acquire a level of oral competency, along with extra linguistic strategies (e.g. nonverbals) in as little as two years; however competency in an academic register is a more complicated skill to acquire and can take much longer, perhaps as long as ten years. In fact, Yorio (1989) found in his study of idiomaticity and L2 writing that nonnative speakers, even after 5-6 years of residence in the U.S., having taken ESL instruction and having had English as their sole medium of instruction, still could not produce writing that displayed native-like characteristics only. Obviously this is problematic for Generation 1.5 students who, if they received ESL instruction in K-12 grades at all, would have done so for maybe two years.

This problem was illustrated in student interviews, including the interview with Anna, the student from the Ukraine. After attending grades four through eight in an American school and receiving only occasional help with vocabulary and some tutoring when an attentive teacher offered, Anna was disappointed in her own performance when, in high school, she was told she needed tutoring in writing. When she was entering university, she did poorly in the college placement test for English and writing and, though disappointed, chose to take the ESL class. Though she had attended American schools for 10 years before

entering college, her academic writing skills were still considered at a remedial level, and Anna blamed herself.

The differences in background and training between Generation 1.5 students and international students suggest very different needs in terms of instructional materials and modes. For example, while international students are familiar with parts of speech and grammatical terms due to their experience in ESL classes, Generation 1.5 students generally are not. Several researchers (Harklau 2003, Singhal 2005, Smoke 2001, Valdes 1992) point out that they have not had any or had very limited formal instruction in English language before coming to the U.S. Moreover, they have often not had the same exposure to academic and literary writing and critical analysis, particularly if they left their L1 schooling at a young age. Blanton (1999:130-135), Ferris (2002:49-76) and Thonus (2003:21-23) all point out that this is an important issue when providing feedback on written work when many students do not understand the kinds of revisions and corrections they are being asked to make or have not had experience with reading and analyzing complicated academic texts and various rhetorical styles. The result is that, when all of these students arrive at colleges and universities, they enter freshmen composition and/or ESL classes with varying levels of abilities, needs, and motivations and are, for the most part, lumped together under the ESL label where, if they get specialized instruction at all, they will be provided with instruction and materials probably insufficient to improving their language acquisition skills.

2.4 Freshman composition and/or ESL writing classes

As these students enter U.S. universities, they take either a freshman composition class or an ESL composition class which is intended to give them experience with academic writing. Smoke (2001:195-197) and Wurr (2005:15) report that due to budget constraints and/or legal issues, the number of colleges and universities with ESL programs and faculty are decreasing, despite the increasing number of linguistically diverse students. Freshman

composition instructors are often finding ESL, nonstandard dialect, and basic writers all in the same class. Several studies (Harklau 2003, Harklau & Losey & Siegal 1999, Singhal 2005, Smoke 2001,Wurr 2005) found that often times the instructors have little or no training in second language teaching methods, have limited or no experience with students of non-native English language backgrounds and are unaware of their needs or how to help them develop their writing skills.

Placement of students in appropriate classes and/or supplemental help situations (e.g. tutoring) is often a missed or haphazard venture particularly for Generation 1.5 students. Since they are coming from U.S. high schools, they are not identified as ESL students during initial admittance or even during orientation placement testing. Blanton (1999:125-127) and Smoke (2001:197-199) show that their writing skills in placement tests often places them in remedial writing classes. To further complicate the placement issue, most colleges can not require students who score poorly on the initial diagnostic test to take a remedial or ESL class. Often, ESL classes (and remedial writing classes) do not count toward their degree status and therefore the student has to pay for an extra course and add time to their already lengthy academic program; for most students, this renders the extra course help impossible.

These students will also, more often than not, not identify themselves as NNS or as ESL students (Goldsmith & Ziemba 2003, Smoke 2001). Their experiences in American schools has taught them that to identify this way stigmatizes them as *different* or *less*; additionally, research on learning strategies and extra linguistic variables (Blanton 1999, Frodesen & Starna 1999, Rodby 1999, Valdes 1992) has indicated that they consider themselves culturally and socially the same as their peers and have developed significant linguistic and metalinguistic strategies for communicating which often times makes them indistinguishable from NS students.

The problem of course is that once these students pass the incipient stage, where formal learning is still in progress and easy identification and recommendation to ESL classes are made, most instructors (especially those untrained in ESL or SLA) expect the students to write very much like NS students. Blanton (1999:126) argues that fossilized elements in their writing or features of contact English often cause frustration to writing teachers who may require these students go back into basic ESL classes, which is harmful to the students' psyche and attitude and produces questionable results in terms of improving their language acquisition.

Not only then are we dealing with linguistic differences and deficiencies, but Benesch (2001:9-14) points out that various cognitive skills and particularly their study skills become increasingly important components to their linguistic and academic success. Academic literacy in its current usage means more than just reading and writing skills, but includes the ability to think critically and employ a higher order of thinking skills, communication skills and research skills; it also suggests an ability to perform these skills across various sub-registers which are specific to various disciplines within the academic register. For example, Singhal (2004) and Johns (1995) point out that science, humanities, mathematics, etc. all have specific registers that students encounter when studying the various disciplines. Therefore university instructors are not only requiring these students to have language competency, but they also require students to be flexible and adapt the above-mentioned skills across disciplines. Moreover, given the technological advances which are constant, they must also be able to adapt quickly and efficiently. This is a tall order for NS students and even more so for ESL students of varying backgrounds.

SECTION 3:
INTERDISCIPLINARY THEORIES OF L2 WRITING AND WRITING PEDAGOGY

In this section, I will discuss approaches to L2 writing as presented across various disciplines such as English composition, ESL, EFL/FLT, SLA, and corpus linguistics. Each area of academic study offers insight into specific linguistic issues of international students and native speakers, but none address the specific problems encountered by Generation 1.5 students. By examining research from the different disciplines, I hope to suggest that a cross-disciplinary approach can prove more effective in identifying the linguistic differences in our students and strengthen our analysis of L2 writing instruction practices.

3.1 EAP and composition studies

Academic writing is difficult, at best, and requires the ability to compose, develop and analyze ideas. Myles (2001:1) explains that

> The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing also involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or to transform information into new texts, as in expository or argumentative writing.

Composing or creating a text by formulating new ideas, transforming information, putting concepts together and solving problems is an extremely complicated process and, when you add to this the complication of having to employ writing strategies and techniques in an L2, it is easy to understand why the process is so difficult for many of the students. For international students who have developed L1 writing skills, Myles (ibid:7-8) argues that the problems they often encounter in composition classes have to do with culture-specific constructs of American academic discourse, such distinct rhetorical preferences for structuring arguments, as well as their varying levels of command of English. For Generation 1.5 students the difficulties are somewhat different. They have had less exposure and rigor to

academic strategies overall and, while their difficulties with producing critical texts in an academic genre may seem superficially similar to basic NS writers, the underlying causes are different, including (but not limited to) a lack of command of an academic register in L1 or L2, fossilized or stagnant interlanguage, and a lack of structural study in English grammar.

Historically, the debate about methods and content in an ESL composition class is a long one. Benesch (2001:5-24) reviews earlier L2 writing theories and explains that the process approach to composition, which has been in favor since the 1970s, argues for students to learn to write in the way that professional writers are perceived to work, through multiple drafts and revisions. Taking elements from the communicative approach to oral production, process approach advocates argued against explicit grammar instruction in favor of a more inductive approach. While this is an ideal theoretical approach, it is not without some difficulty in an ESL (or NS for that matter) composition classroom. First of all, it assumes a great deal of time for each piece of writing to accommodate the drafting and redrafting and redrafting procedure. More importantly, it assumes the student can successfully edit his/her own piece of writing. If students do not have the skill in grammar, mechanics (e.g. punctuation), and rhetorical patterns, then this process will not result in highly improved drafts or improved writing skills. Both Johns (1995:280:281) and Hyland (Matsuda et. al. 2003) confirm that while most composition classes still include some process modeling today, it is typically a modified version in order to accommodate the time constraints and the students' lack of developed revising skills.

In her study, Thonus (2003) goes beyond classroom learning and studies the effectiveness of support services in university writing centers to see whether ESL and/or Generation 1.5 students were receiving useful help. She argues that the method employed by most tutoring centers, which is based on a process model, makes several assumptions which can be paraphrased as follows:

1. Students can verbalize what they want to write.
2. They can express themselves clearly and correctly in English.
3. They can reply to questions about writing.
4. Students can perceive what sounds right on paper.
5. They can focus on and value organization and development more than sentence-level correctness. (ibid:17)

Though writing tutors provide key academic support in an anonymous and non-stigmatized atmosphere, Thonus suggests that current methods of tutoring are ineffective for Generation 1.5 students because writing center assumptions simply do not apply to them. She suggests offering more explicit direction and a focus on balancing grammar usage and rhetorical styles in order to foster the writing abilities of Generation 1.5 and other L2 students.

Genre approaches have also been debated as improved methods of instructing ESL composition students. Broadly speaking, genre analyses focus on the linguistic features of a text, their rhetorical purposes and pedagogical applications. This is most often accomplished by introducing to the students different styles of texts (e.g. fiction vs. scientific article vs. argumentative essay) in order to illustrate different rhetorical and stylistic mannerisms. These methods have brought about a great deal of debate in the ESL/EAP world. ESL composition experts, Raimes (1991), Spack (1988), Zamel (1993), and Zamel& Spack (2004), have all argued to different degrees that ESL writing courses should be general and include literary texts along with a variety of nonacademic models of writing for students. They tend to support and agree with English compositionalists, like Bartholomae & Petrosky (1999:5-9), who argue that genre analysis is reductionist and an invalid approach to literature and reading. They believe that ESL students can become better writers no matter what kinds of texts they encounter; they oppose linking ESL composition courses to the academic demands of content courses and believe that ESL teachers should not teach materials outside of their discipline.

Opponents of this view, such as Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) and Swales (1990) argue that teaching various genres allows students to adjust to the many discourse communities they encounter at university. They also argue that genre-based ESP/EAP is necessary to meet the future professional concerns of students. Swales (1990), for example, argued that teaching rhetorical devices used in specific disciplines model effective language use for students. He looked at rhetorical devices used in research article introductions in order to discover how scientists establish context and credibility for their own research. From this study, he created the "create a research space" (CARS) model used to teach students this part of the research article as genre. This model has been adopted and adapted by many others and, according to Dudley-Evans (1995:304), these kinds of activities and training allow students to apply "general knowledge of genre conventions and other aspects of writing they have gain from the general classes to actual assignments or examination answers."

Based on SLA research of motivation and other social factors influencing L2 acquisition, Carson (2001) and Johns (1999) suggest that the tasks assigned to learners must having meaning to them in order for them to be attentive to errors, to monitor their progress, and to be concerned with rhetorical issues. Johns (1999:159-160) in fact insists that for Generation 1.5 students in particular a "socioliterate approach (SA)" is most effective because it focuses on the belief that texts are social, reflecting the values and concerns of the community to which they belong, and that all of us are shaped by the social nature of language and texts. With this method, there is room for a great deal of flexibility in material choice, including student choice of some of the texts, and instructors can vary assignments to reflect the various kinds of assignments typical of academic writing across disciplines, like summaries, annotated bibliographies, research and more (Horowitz 1986). This type of engagement and investment in their own learning would suggest a more engaged and

therefore successful student and has been supported by Benesch (2001) and others in fields outside of ESL, most specifically Friere (1970, 1973).

In addition to the variation of content focus in ESL composition classrooms, the argument for increased sentence –level instruction and the content of language instruction in ESL textbooks must be examined. The materials typically included in composition classrooms are either devoid of explicit grammar instruction (McEnery et al. 1997:9-10, Mulroy 2003) or would include grammar structures and explanations that may or may not be appropriate to the student audience. Those classes that do include grammar instruction will usually use texts which tell the instructor what the most important structures are for the students to know and indicate that they represent the structures with which L2 learners will typically have difficulties. There has been a plethora of research (Biber & Reppen 2002, Clear 2000, Conrad 1996, Ferris 2002, Flowerdew 1998, Granger 1998, Harklau 2003, Hoey 2000, Valdes 1992) which shows that the problem here is that the majority of these books are based on the intuitive knowledge of the writer and not necessarily on factual data indicating what structures are most typically used and/or what structures learners typically show difficulty in producing properly. Biber & Reppen (2002) specifically have proven that instructors often spend considerable time on grammar structures which students have already acquired and not on structures or nuances students need but have not mastered, for example idioms or prefabricated phrases. Additionally, Blanton (1999:133-134) and Ferris (2002:49-76) argue that these explanations and subsequently the teachers' comments to students on papers assume a prior and quite extensive background in formal English grammar instruction. This is problematic again for the Generation 1.5 students whose knowledge is acquired in American schools where, as Mulroy (2003:60-103) points out, grammar is either not part of instruction at all or discussed minimally at the sixth or seventh grade level (12-13 years old) only. Therefore all students – NS and NNS alike – who have attended U.S. schools enter

college without being able to explain what a gerund is or identify a subordinate clause. They rely completely on their intuitive knowledge of the language to produce *correct* writing; this can be problematic for Generation 1.5 students whose intuitive level of English, especially academic English, is perhaps not as developed as a NS.

In addition to composition studies, ESL writing development has been examined by SLA researchers. Because their approach is developmental rather than pedagogical, SLA researchers offer a different perspective.

3.2 SLA and ELT/FLT

Despite overlooking an ever-growing part of the L2 population, SLA research over the past 40 years has grown and has much to teach us about the developmental processes students go through. In order to try to understand the mechanisms for foreign/second language acquisition, researchers have traditionally drawn on a variety of data types which Ellis (1994:670) describes as language use data, metalinguistic judgments, and self-report data. Granger (2002:4-6) points out that the problem with this type of analysis is that it is based on small amounts of empirical data; this generally has been due to the fact that it is difficult to gather large groups of informants for experimentation. Using small numbers of participants raises questions about the generalizability of results. Flowerdew (1998a:4), however, does point out that "…where the aim is the study of grammar, a relatively small corpus can be used, as a representative sample of the more frequently occurring grammatical words can be assured." When researchers use small samples, however, it is important to be mindful of the elements chosen to be examined. Biber and Reppen (2002) make the argument that researchers tend to notice *unusual* occurrences rather than typical occurrences and the features that then get discussed are often an unrepresentative example of error.

SLA studies on error analysis, interlanguage, and contrastive analysis have contributed much to our knowledge of L2 acquisition, albeit with a negative focus. Without

realizing it, by describing the learners' 'progress' in terms of errors made or undeveloped 'interlanguage', researchers have presented descriptions of what these students are not, and have contributed labels such as *fossilized*, "a term suggesting remnants of monstrous aberrations beyond remediation of any evolutionary process" (Milton 1994:65). Similarly, research on contrastive analysis, for example the work of Swan and Smith (2001) on learner English, can offer insight into projected difficulties learners of specific languages might face when learning English; however, we need to be warned about over generalizing and negative stereotyping based on these observations.

Granger (2002:3-5) and Mark (1998) both make similar observations and criticisms regarding ELT/FLT research, whose aim is to improve the learning and teaching of English. While both admit that there have been increased studies in learner variables and in target language use and structures, both criticize the lack of learner output discussed in the research again due to the sample sizes. In fact, for Mark (ibid: 84) "it simply goes against common sense to base instruction on limited learner data and to ignore, in all aspects of pedagogy from task to curriculum level, knowledge of learner language."

3.3 Corpus studies and ELT/FLT

Unlike traditional SLA and ESL research, corpus studies look at larger bodies of discourse which then allows researchers to move beyond individual peculiarities and make generalizations. It also encourages educators to stop considering L2 writing as a deficit and to explore text-based procedures for conceptual and empirical research.

Not only has there been a problem with limited learner data, but interpreting this data and using intuition and anecdotal information have been the primary sources for material development in L2 writing and grammar materials. Corpus studies by Biber & Reppen (2002), Flowerdew (1998b), Römer (2004), and Conrad (1996), as well as many others, have all proven a sharp contrast between what learners need versus what they are taught. Using

empirical data from linguistic corpora, these studies have shown that the relationship between the information presented in ESL/EFL materials and what is known about actual language use are vastly different and therefore not serving students.

Biber and Reppen (2002), for example, use frequency findings from corpus linguistics to examine the grammar topics from six of the most widely used ESL grammar textbooks. The low-intermediate to advanced textbooks were chosen based on their wide use and on their reputations for clear, effective treatments of grammar points. While Ellis (1994) points out that frequency information has been disregarded in applied linguistics because of associations with the Audio-Lingual Method and Behaviorism, Biber & Reppen argue that empirical analyses on frequency data found in linguistic corpora have provided invaluable information about the actual patterns of language use. In this frequency study, they based their analyses on a corpus of about 20 million words (far more data than traditional methods of SLA/ELT research would allow) from four registers: academic prose, fiction, newspapers, and conversation. They considered questions regarding what grammatical features to include or exclude from a text, in what order should grammatical topics be presented, and what specific words should be included when illustrating a grammatical feature. Their findings indicated that they would have come to radically different decisions on material development than were represented in the six textbooks. For example, in all the grammar texts, the progressive aspect of verbs is presented as fundamental to English grammar. However, corpus analysis showed that, while the progressive is common in conversation, it is not the unmarked choice and it is rarely seen in academic prose at all. This is only one of several examples leading to the authors' conclusion that rethinking grammar elements in materials development is crucial.

Similarly, in Flowerdew's (1998b) research into using corpus studies to analyze causality, she uses both learner and native speaker corpora to examine markers specifically in

science and technology writing. Interestingly, she found that markers commonly used in professional documents were missing entirely from EAP textbooks, thereby putting students at an automatic disadvantage. For example, key connector words used in technical documents, like *with, through, for, from*, which signal cause, are ignored in the EAP books. Moreover, the positioning, frequency and use of logical connectors is not dealt with in a way that is representative of their use in documents. Flowerdew (ibid: 339) argues that this discrepancy between corpus-based findings and intuitively-based materials can be misleading for students. I would go further to suggest that it is perhaps a reason why NNS learners are often targeted by instructors as not able to write to a native level proficiency.

Ute Römer's (2004) corpus-driven study on modal auxiliaries focuses on a contrastive analysis of modal frequency, distribution, meanings, and contexts as used in spoken British national Corpus (BNC) data versus selected EFL textbooks used in German schools. By comparing frequency analyses, different meaning analyses, and co-occurrence analyses of both data banks, Römer found significant and concrete discrepancies between the use of modals in "real" English and in "school" English. She found, for example, that the modals *will/'ll*, *can*, and *must* are overused in the EFL textbooks, while *would/'d*, *could*, *should*, and *might* were underused. Furthermore, she found that the EFL texts showed *could* and *can* to primarily express ability, whereas data in the BNC indicated that by a large percentage, *could* most frequently is used to express a possibility. Many other discrepancies were also noted, including the overuse of modals with negation in the German EFL texts (ibid: 193-195). Römer concludes by making several specific recommendations for changes in EFL textbooks to better reflect actual usage such as changing the order in which modals are presented, including explanations of all possible differences in a modal's meaning, avoiding overuse of modals with negation, and more (ibid:195-197). Römer's study indicates that more corpus-

driven research is needed in order to upgrade teaching materials to reflect a more authentic English.

Finally, in an article by Conrad (1996), the author uses corpus-based techniques to examine variation in academic discourse by looking at linguistic features in ESL composition textbooks, ecology textbooks, and research articles in ecology. Her findings are as disturbing as Flowerdew's and Biber's & Reppen's. She found first that ESL composition texts generally include fiction and nonfiction readings that are intended to represent readings across disciplines. However, her study provides concrete linguistic evidence that the readings are in fact intended for popular audiences and do not expose learners to academic styles of reading and writing. Additionally, the study also raised considerations about the differences in linguistic patterns between the ecology textbooks and articles. The textbooks, for example, showed marked linguistic features of informational production, non-narrative concerns, and impersonal style. The articles, on the other hand, included features which indicated the interpretation of facts, personal attitude, and human agency. These register differences and rhetorical devices are key to producing the kind of academic texts students are expected to produce; yet they are not being exposed to those patterns in a significant way.

To synthesize the above discussion, the following claims can be made:

1. There at least two very different populations of L2 learners in colleges and universities today, with a growing population of multilingual immigrant/resident students called Generation 1.5 students who have spent significant time in American schools.
2. These two populations groups have significantly different academic backgrounds, English language learning experiences, needs and language skills.
3. Research suggests that improving learners' academic English requires a pedagogy that includes training in register/discourse analysis and materials which engage the students and reflect their perceived needs.
4. Most of the studies done on ESL learners are biased in the direction of the international students and their training and perceived needs.
5. Most of the materials and textbooks developed to help ESL learners with grammar, reading and writing were developed primarily with the international student needs in mind.

6. However, corpus studies have shown that the materials developed for ESL instruction do not adequately reflect the patterns, linguistic structures or needs of those students. These materials have primarily been developed through the intuition of ESL researchers and instructors. Therefore, the texts and materials are not serving any of the ESL student populations in an effective and accurate manner.

What is needed then are accurate studies based on authentic data which can illustrate what the linguistic differences are between the two populations of multilingual learners. Once that data is made clear, more effective teaching methods and materials can be developed.

SECTION 4:
DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (DA) AND CORPUS LINGUISTICS (CL)

The value of studying authentic data as a way to investigate lexico-grammatical elements of genres and non-native target language use cannot be overstated. Marrying discourse analysis (DA) and corpus linguistics (CL) may seem at first a strange union, but as Sinclair (2004b:10) states, both areas of research encourage the study and formulation of new ideas and manage dimensions of patterns that are typically larger than traditional linguistics research can handle. In this section, I will examine research in areas of DA and CL and argue for a corpus study as a way to identify linguistic differences in our L2 learner groups.

4.1 Discourse analysis

One way to perhaps address this discrepancy between what students are expected to know and what they are actually being taught is a further look at DA in L2 writing research. Hyland (Matsuda et al. 2003) proposes an increased exploration of texts in order to discover what they tell us about the purpose and functions of language use and the constraints under which writers operate. DA is not a new tradition in SLA studies and has been credited with the development of EAP (ibid: 165), but Hyland (ibid: 166-167) offers four reasons why DA offers a variety of possibilities to those interested in studying L2 writing. These four reasons are paraphrased here:

1. There is a growing recognition in the post-process writing period that students need a clearer understanding of structure and form of the texts they are expected to write. DA looks at tasks and materials that are grounded in the analysis of real texts.
2. There is a growing interest in real language and in viewing writing as a social interaction. DA links discourse features to issues of writer purpose, identity, audience expectations, cultural elements, and more.
3. There is a growing interest in the way students write. DA allows for research into the study of meanings learners are trying to express through their choice an arrangement of forms. Hyland suggests that DA encourages researchers to look at student writing as a valid form of discourse it its own right, rather than as a flawed interlanguage suffering from L1 interference. This novel idea challenges many of the negative approaches taken when assessing L2 writing.

4. There is a growing interest in learner corpora. Because the technology now exists to compile, store and interrogate a corpora of student work, the possibility of learning how students express themselves, approach rhetorical problems, express certain meanings, and more is real. DA studies of learner corpora can give more information on systematic variation in authentic learner language.

There is a growing body of research which supports Hyland's work and which has provided some important insight into learner language. Just as the above mentioned corpus studies proved that the materials typically used for ESL instruction have not necessarily been representative of student needs, corpus studies in various areas of DA have also suggested that a more comprehensive understanding of actual student language use needs to be described. Several corpus studies have been done comparing native speaker and L2 learner writing which have given insight into learner errors on a grammatical level (Biber & Reppen 1998, Granger 1998, Housen 2002) and into learner rhetorical strategies (Flowerdew 1998c, Hunston 2002:206-212). Very interestingly, this discourse work can also serve to change long-standing stereotypes. Hyland (Matsuda et al:179), for example, points to his own research looking at writing by L1 and L2 learners of English in the U.K. and Hong Kong, respectively, and found that "Hong Kong writers didn't conform to the stereotype of Asian indirectness but made far stronger commitments and used about half the number of hedges than the L1 writers". These studies and more suggest that DA corpus studies can provide much needed information based on actual student language use.

4.2 Corpus studies

Corpus studies look at actual language use and therefore provide empirical evidence with which to assess linguistic variation among learners. Linguistic variation is a fact of language use since variability is inherent in human language. However, corpus studies can provide specific data which the researcher can then analyze in order to distinguish whether a particular variation is consistent with a register difference, a dialect difference, a particular

rhetorical device, or simply a one off individual error. Corpus-based analyses allow researchers to analyze complete texts, multiple texts of any variety, and multiple written (or spoken) varieties for comparative purposes. Corpus studies can give a context whereby the qualitative value of quantitative information can be discovered.

Hunston (2002:20-23) discusses what a corpus study can and can not do. She argues that a corpus gives a fairly reliable snapshot of what language is like because it is not based solely on intuition, and intuition fails when trying to explain the idiosyncratic behavior of particular patterns of words, but warns against overestimating what a corpus analysis can do. Hunston (ibid.) gives examples of four aspects of language on which corpus studies can shed particular light:

1. Collocations - e.g. word which collocate more or less commonly, like adverbs which collocate with particular adjectives
2. Frequency - e.g. words and phrases which occur more often in particular types of discourse, or grammatical structures which are more or less common
3. Prosody - e.g. chunks of words and their pragmatic meanings
4. Phraseology -e.g. awkward or unusual phrases and constructions which are difficult to explain

Corpus studies offer data which allows the researcher then to make assessments based on the evidence, rather than on intuition. Corpora can not offer interpretation, all possibilities of structure and usage, or extra-linguistic context, but they do present the researcher with plenty of facts to interpret.

4.3 What kinds of corpus studies have already been done?

4.3.1 Corpus studies on English

While there are no corpus studies to date which examine the linguistic differences of the two primary populations of ESL learners, there have been extensive corpus studies which consider student writing and/or academic registers in English as an L1; there is also a growing body of corpus research on L2 contrastive interlanguage studies, comparing data

from learners of English (primarily international students who come mainly from countries with strong EFL programs) against native speaker data. By examining these existing studies, researchers can learn not only about what features to look for but also what kind of corpus design to follow.

Corpus analysis can essentially be divided up into two main kinds of research questions. According to Reppen, Fitzmaurice & Biber (2002: viii), studies can either focus on the use of a particular linguistic feature (a word set, a grammatical construction, etc.) or they can focus on characteristics of language varieties (e.g. dialects and registers). As early as 1991, Altenberg published a bibliography of over 600 studies done on English using corpora. Since then, researchers have increasing relied on corpora to study language use and features. Some of the most notable studies have given the field incredibly useful information in a variety of areas:

1. Describing grammatical elements and functions – e.g. Biber & Reppen (2002) on frequencies of certain structures; Clear (2000) on the interaction of grammar and lexis; Granger (1983) on passives; Hunston & Francis (1999) on transitivity of certain verbs; Hunston (2004) on modals; Kennedy (2002) on verb form choice in different registers.
2. Investigating and characterizing the use of certain fixed expressions – e.g. Cortes (2002) on lexical expressions which occur frequently in academic registers; Nattinger & DeCarrico (1992) on fixed lexical expressions; Oakey (2002) on formulaic expressions; Poos & Simpson (2002) on *sort of* and *kind of* as hedging devices.
3. Investigating the distribution and function of closely related or multifunctional words – e.g. Altenberg (1994) on *such*; Biber, Conrad & Reppen (1994) on adjectives.
4. Describing register and/or dialect variation – e.g. Biber (1996) investigating linguistic patterns across registers; Conrad (1996) comparing student writing with professional writing across two disciplines; Csomay (2002) describing the linguistic features of academic lectures; Hoey (2000) examining organization structures of texts; Rogers (2002) comparing written Indian English with British and American written syntax.

While this represents only a minimum number of the studies done to date, the range and variety is represented as well as the kinds of information available from these studies. Knowledge of academic register, discourse elements in various registers and across genres,

and how speakers and writers actually use various linguistic elements and grammatical features has been greatly enhanced.

4.3.2 Corpus studies on L2 learners

Similarly, SLA and corpus linguistics seem to have come together to provide a wide array of studies examining the acquisition process and language use of L2 learners and are helping to shape and create useful pedagogical tools. In the vast majority of studies, researchers are comparing and contrasting L2 learners – who fall into the category of international students – with native speaker corpora. Using the above model, the kinds of studies done can be broken down into similar categories:

1. Describing use grammatical elements and functions – e.g. Aijmer (2002) on English modal use in French and German L2 English learners; Biber & Reppen (2002) and Meunier (2002) on frequency of specific grammatical structures in relation to grammar teaching; Housen (2002) on the acquisition of verbs in four different L2 groups; Ringbom (1998) on verb frequencies; Tono (2000) on morpheme acquisition.
2. Investigating and characterizing the use of fixed expressions – e.g. DeCock, Granger, Leech & McEnery (1998) on prefabricated/patterned phrase use; Flowerdew (2000) on referential errors; Vertanen (1998) on *wh*-question formation.
3. Investigating the distribution and function of individual (multifunctional) words – e.g. Altenberg & Tapper (1998) on adverbial connectors; Flowerdew (1998a) on causative conjunctions and causative adverbs; Hasselgren (2002) on the use of small words like *well, sort of* as a measure of fluency.
4. Describing register/dialect variation – e.g. Flowerdew (1998a) describing cause and effect devices as used by L2 learners versus use in NS professional science genre writing; Flowerdew (1998b) and Hyland (Matsuda et al 2003) investigating L2 learner use of elements like hedging devices as compared to native register use; Thompson (2000) reporting on citation practices of postgraduate L2 English learners as compared to professional documents.

While a great deal about learner processes and interlanguage development can be learned from these studies, once again they all describe participants who are learners of English who have studied English formally for many years and who are studying in the U.S., Britain, or another English-speaking country for a limited time. There was only one study I could find which claimed to look at learner and bilingual evidence in learner corpus research. In his study, Altenberg (2002) looked at overuse of the causative *make* with adjective complements

in the native and learner texts of an aligned Swedish-English bilingual (ICLE) corpus. Looking at texts of (American) English speakers, advanced French and Swedish EFL L2 writing, Altenberg carries out comparisons of original version and translated written Swedish and English to conclude that the overuse is due to L1 transfer. Altenberg does identify the learners represented in the corpus as students studying English as internationals with extant formal training, rather than as immigrants with little or no formal training.

Overall then the extensive research done in corpus linguistic studies provides some unexpected conclusions and exciting possibilities. One of those possibilities of course is to design a study which would help distinguish the linguistic differences between international students and 1.5 generation students and therefore identify teaching needs of multilingual writing students.

SECTION 5: CORPUS DESIGN

Granger (1998:9-15) and Atkins & Clear (1992) call for the clear and careful design of a learner corpus for study. In this section, I will outline the plan for my corpus study design and methodology, as well as the proposed focus of this study in Modules II and III of my PhD research.

5.1 Design criteria

Strict criteria must be adhered to for both the learners and the tasks/text included as well as in the encoding and controlling of variables in order for the information to be useful. Granger (ibid: 9) illustrates specific and required elements, which she labels "design criteria", to consider in Table 4 below.

Learner	Task Setting
• Learning context • Mother tongue • Other foreign languages • Level of proficiency • Number of years in residence* • Length of time planned in the U.S.* • Type/Length of English language education*[9] • […]	• Audience • Rhetorical Pattern** • Use of readings/reference tools** • Time limit • Type of writing activity**[10] • […]

Table 4: Computer learner corpora – elements to include
(Adapted from: Granger 1998:9)

In order to distinguish the linguistic differences between the two principle ESL learner groups, I will have to employ what Aijmer (2002:56) calls "a contrastive interlanguage methodology". This means comparing the different subcorpora (ESL versus Generation 1.5 data) with each other and comparing both of those to a native language control group corpora. Like Altenberg's (2002) study, two groups of learner data will need to be examined; however, here the learner groups will have to be clearly

[9] * Indicates changes/additions to Granger's table and relevance for my research purposes.
[10] ** Indicates changes/additions to Granger's table and relevance for my research purposes.

identified and their linguistic data analyzed for differences and checked for individual peculiarities versus generalized trends. Additionally, as in Hyland's study (Matsuda et al 2003), general characteristics of the academic registers in which the tasks are set will need to be discussed in order to determine if even the native speaker students are adhering to register conventions.

Specifically, I am looking to a create a corpus over a period of 2.5 years which will include writing assignments completed by Generation 1.5 students, international students and native speaker students at Penn State Erie. All students will be enrolled in a freshman composition class or its ESL equivalent and will be assigned the same reading and writing assignments. This will eliminate variable problems such as differing tasks, rhetorical assignments, or unexpected and unusual word frequencies appearing in the data analysis. The native speaker control group will come from a cross-section of regular and honors English freshman composition classes. I am hypothesizing that there will be distinctive linguistic and stylistic features which will identify differences in the writing of international students, Generation 1.5 students, and native speakers. By identifying these differences, we will be better able to address the learning needs of these students.

In Module II, I plan on examining the data I have collected through December 2005 and consider elements of discourse found/not found in the student work. Basing my research on the concept of corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) as discussed by Alan Partington (1998, 2003) and with reference to Swales genre studies, I will consider linguistic features which mark academic register and see if these elements are found in the writing of any of the three groups of students (international students, 1.5 Generation students, and/or native speaker control group students). This will be an exploratory pilot study to identify those features which best encapsulate the differences between the two learner corpora. Because this will be a pilot study and the sampling of student writings will be small (covering only a 2-

semester time frame), it will a beginning test to the hypothesis that distinctive writing differences among the two learners groups and the native speaker control group will surface.

In Module III, I will collate all the data over the 2.5 year period. My hope is to present a more complete study where I will be able to identify not only a few discourse differences, but will be able to look more closely at the following:

1) Variation on particular uses of linguistic features by looking at:
    i) The frequency of words/word choices
    ii) A set of related words/collocations
    iii) Grammatical constructions
    iv) The interaction between particular words and grammatical structures

2) The overall characteristics of academic register that are/are not present.

SECTION 6:
CONCLUSION

My belief is that because of inaccurate research and an ever-changing student population, universities are not effectively serving those students who have been lumped together under the ESL label. Political issues, economic concerns and materials developed for one particular audience and with inaccurate intuitions of what that audience needs has resulted in a large part of the student population being underserved and thereby tagged as remedial or deficient. While I would caution against exchanging one label (ESL) for another (Generation 1.5) and thereby assigning another set of negative stereotypes onto students, the need for accurate information on the linguistic differences and needs of these student groups is necessary and quite urgent. Rather than continue on with inaccurate data, ineffective materials and only intuition to guide us, the opportunity exists to employ available technology to raise awareness and standards. If students' needs are better understood, more useful and effective materials and teaching techniques can be developed in order to help them achieve their academic goals.

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APPENDIX:

ESL/International Student Survey

This survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete; please answer questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Because participation in this research is voluntary, you may stop at any time. The information from this survey will be used for PhD research examining the writing skills of ESL, EFL, and native English-speaking students at U.S. universities. Any identifying information obtained from this survey will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher, Mary Connerty and Professor Susan Hunston at the University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England, U.K. You may contact Mary Connerty at the above phone number or email address at any time regarding questions about this survey or the research.

Part I: General information

1. Name: _____
2. Age: _____
3. Gender: F_____ M_____
4. Nationality: _____
5. Country of Birth: _____
6. Native Language: _____
7. Other languages spoken: _____
8. Length of time in the US: _____

Part II: Education and Future Plans

9. Did you attend high school in the U.S.? Yes_____ No_____
10. If yes, at what grade level did you first attend school in the US? _____
11. If yes, at what age did you first attend school in the US? _____
12. Are you an international student studying in the US on a student visa? Yes _____ No _____
13. How long do you plan on staying in the US? _____
14. What is your academic major or major course of study? _____
15. What is your semester standing? (1st semester, 3rd semester, etc.) _____
16. Do you plan on attending graduate school after college? Yes_____ No_____
    a. If yes, in what field? _____
    b. Where? _____
17. What profession do you wish to pursue? _____
18. In what country do you wish to work? _____

Part III: English Language Training

19. Did you study English formally (in school/classes) before coming to the US? Yes____ No____
20. If yes, for how many years? _____
21. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe the kinds of instruction you had:

    Writing _____ Grammar _____

    Speaking _____ Listening _____

Reading _____ Other (please explain) _____

22. Did you have informal exposure to English (e.g. TV, movies, internet) before coming to the US?
Yes____ No____

23. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe your exposure to English:
TV _____ Music _____
Movies _____ Internet _____
Other (please describe) _____

24. If yes, for how years? _____
25. Did you take the TOEFL or ILETS test? Yes____ No____
26. If yes, what was your score? _____
27. If you studied in a US grade school, middle school, and/or high school, were you given English language (ESL) classes? Yes____ No____
28. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe the kinds of instruction you had:
Writing _____ Grammar _____
Speaking _____ Listening _____
Reading _____ Other (please explain) _____

29. If yes, how long did you take English language (ESL) classes? _____
30. If you studied in a US grade school, middle school, and/or high school, did you take classes with native speakers of English? Yes____ No____

Part IV: Writing Experience

31. Have you written essays and/or research papers in a language other than English?
Yes____ No____
32. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete. (e.g. a lab report for a biology experiment, a 5-page research paper for history class about an event in your country's history, a 2-page reaction paper to a piece of literature, etc.)
_____
_____
_____

33. Have you written essays or research papers in English before taking this class? Yes____ No____
34. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete (e.g. an 3-page essay about a Shakespeare play, a 5-page research paper for history class on the Industrial Revolution, a 3-page paper about my family history for sociology class, a lab report for a biology experiment, etc.)
_____

_____

_____

35. What do you perceive to be your strengths when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____	Grammar _____
Organization_____	Content/Ideas_____
Punctuation_____	Other (please explain)_____

36. What do you perceive to be your weaknesses when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____	Grammar _____
Organization_____	Content/Ideas_____
Punctuation_____	Other (please explain)_____

Thank you for your help with this survey!

.

Modular PhD in Applied Linguistics

Module II:

VARIATION IN ACADEMIC WRITING AMONG GENERATION 1.5 LEARNERS, NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING LEARNERS AND ESL LEARNERS: A STUDY OF WRITER INTERACTION AND EVALUATION

Mary Connerty

October 2006

Submitted to The University of Birmingham in part fulfillment of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

ABSTRACT

The aim of this small pilot study is to illustrate differences among Generation 1.5, traditional ESL, and Native Speaker academic writers. Because the scope of this Module is limited, a study of all salient linguistic features present in the writings of these three student groups was impossible. Based on differences in frequency gleaned from the keyword lists from collected student essays as compiled by *WordSmith Tools*, I focus this pilot study on two features related to the role of writer identity and expression in academic texts: first person pronoun use and modals of obligation and necessity. Upon examination of relevant research, it was suggested that these two features in academic texts can be problematic for NNS students in terms of appropriate and native-like use. By examining corpora created from the essays of 1.5, ESL, and NS writers, the frequency and function of these linguistic choices is examined and results are compared to existing literature. The study concludes by discussing the criteria for a future corpus study which will try to further identify linguistic and stylistic features of the two populations of NNS students as compared to a native speaker control group. My goal is to shed light on the ways in which these rhetorical and syntactic features contribute to the construction of writer identity and interaction among these students and hope that this understanding will lead to further investigation and inform the practice of teaching NNS writers in the future.

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LIST OF TABLES (Module II only)

LIST OF CONVENTIONS USED IN THIS MODULE

File Codes

1. File codes appear in parentheses after each example, e.g. (gen0075rp)

2. Each file in the corpora has a nine character code made up of the following parts:
   a. The first three characters identify the corpus/writer type:
      i. gen = Generation 1.5 writer corpus
      ii. esl = ESL writer corpus
      iii. nss = Native Speaker corpus

   b. Four characters identifying the bibliography reference which would include details of the speaker's name, term when essay was written, writing prompt, and first language of speaker where relevant. The first two digits of each code identify the corpus group:
      i. 00xx = 1.5 writers, e.g. 0075
      ii. 05xx = ESL writers
      iii. 10 or 11xx = NS writers, eg. 1023, 1182

   c. Two characters at the end of the code identify the type of writing exercise/prompt:
      i. rr = reader-response essay
      ii. cc = compare-contrast
      iii. ab = annotated bibliography
      iv. rp = research project
      v. ca = critical analysis
      vi. de = descriptive essay
      vii. ee = essay exam

   Thus (gen0075rp) indicates a research project from the 1.5 corpus, file number 0075 (which include details of the writer's name, date of essay, L1, etc.).

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of Study

The *ESL* label has been used at colleges and universities in the U.S. to refer to all those students who are not native speakers of English. As I explained in detail in Module I, instructors are finding however that the population of non native speakers of English (hereafter NNS) students enrolled in their university classes is not entirely made up of international students who have come to the U.S. to pursue a university degree. A large percentage of NNS students have in fact graduated from U.S. secondary schools but are not native born and, though having years in U.S. schools, are still not *proficient* enough in English to pass the rigors of freshman composition. Because their formative academic years are spent in the L2 country, these students are being referred to as Generation 1.5 learners (Rumbaut and Ima 1988). After several terms of teaching a composition class composed of both traditional international students (hereafter ESL) and Generation 1.5 learners (hereafter 1.5), it became clear to me that the linguistic differences and skills of these two very different learner groups were playing important roles in their abilities to produce viable academic writing.

While L2 research is extensive, little of it has been focused on non-international multilingual learners or on the differences between the two major groups of ESL learners. Research on Generation 1.5 writers at the university level is still in its early stages of development and, as Harklau (Matsuda et al. 2003:153-154) argues, that research has only begun on this issue because these students are in some colleges[11] (like PSU Erie where I am currently a lecturer) where they are outnumbering the traditional international learner. I could find little research on linguistic features of non-international multilingual writers. What

[11] Because the terms *college* and *university* are often used interchangeably in the U.S., I will also use them interchangeably here to refer to a postsecondary four-year institution of higher learning.

I did find includes Valdes (1992) where the author defines some characteristics and makes some curricula suggestions. Ferris (1999, 2002) and Fleischman & Hopstock (1999) deal with error treatment in immigrant student writing, and Thonus (2003) discusses problems with writing and tutor response to Generation 1.5 student writing. As I indicated in Module I, there has yet to be a comprehensive study on the specific linguistic features displayed in writing by these students, nor has there been extensive work on the specific linguistic differences displayed by the two major learner groups or by the 1.5 and native speaker of English (hereafter NS) students with whom the 1.5 students trained in pre-university settings. In order to better serve this growing population, qualitative and quantitative research is needed on their language skills in order to understand the differences between them and the NS students as well as the ESL students.

It was with the needs of these students in mind that I intended to design a small pilot study focusing on a few areas which seemed to cause difficulty to 1.5 writers or to show differences between 1.5 and NS writers. Because the scope of this Module is small, a study of all salient linguistic features present in the writings of these students was impossible. Based on information gleaned from the keyword lists from collected student essays as compiled by *WordSmith Tools*, as well as relevant research, I chose to focus this pilot study on two features related to the role of evaluation and stance in academic texts: first person pronoun use and modals of obligation and necessity (details will be discussed below). The results of the keywords list generated from the corpus data supported observations I made from reading student essays. Therefore, I decided that because these two features in academic texts can be problematic in terms of appropriate and native-like use, it seemed a good place to start an investigation. By examining corpora created from the essays of 1.5, ESL, and NS writers, I aim to shed light on the ways in which these rhetorical and syntactic features contribute to the

construction of stance among these students and hope that this understanding will lead to further investigation and inform the practice of teaching NNS writers in the future.

In this chapter, I will discuss issues of L2 and NS approaches to composition teaching presently in practice in U.S. colleges and universities (Section 1.2). In Section 1.3, I will discuss issues of writer interaction and evaluation in relevant literature. Section 1.4 will argue for a corpus approach to this research while Section 1.5 will outline the goals and questions on which this study is based. Finally, Section 1.6 will outline the approach and methodology taken in Module II.

1.2 Teaching Academic Writing to Native and Nonnative Speakers of English – A Brief Discussion

The vast majority of university-bound students in the U.S. are required to take courses in English composition as part of their general education requirements and to provide them with the writing skills essential for their studies. Students usually take these courses at the same time they are taking other general education or discipline area courses. Currently, the trend is to 'mainstream' NNS students with NS students, meaning that very rarely are there classes in ESL or EAP for high school students. Some NNS may receive minimal tutoring, but not more than that.[12] Therefore 1.5 students are generally exposed to the same instruction in English language and composition in secondary school as are the NS students. There is a lack of research on the strategies the 1.5 students develop to compensate for their minimal L2 language instruction or L1 experience, but researchers seem to agree that in general these students have highly developed aural strategies which help them be successful in social interactions with peers, but not are not always as useful for academic challenges (Losey 2006).

[12] A more detailed description of NNS and particularly 1.5 English education appears in Module I.

Whether NS or NNS, in integrated or in separate classes, the methodologies for teaching academic writing have developed along similar lines, with mixed results. When the methodologies for the study of rhetoric and composition in L1 writing moved away from grammatical and rhetorical analysis and writing product in the 1950's and 1960's to a more process-centered paradigm focusing on prewriting, writing, and revision, the teaching of L2 writing of NNS students adopted methodologically similar trends (Hairston 1982; Zamel 1998; Johns 1990; Reid 1993; Leki & Carson 1997; Hinkel 2002). A problem arises for both NS and NNS when their instructors in classes other than composition (especially when they get to university) still evaluate them on the product of their writing. Both NS and NNS students' ability to succeed at university in mainstream studies is determined by their ability to perform on traditional product-oriented language tasks, usually involving reading and writing (Leki 1992; Leki & Carson 1997; Hinkel 2002). In his study of current trends in U.S. education, Wildavsky summarized the situation as follows: "…College professors demand correct grammar from incoming students, according to a new survey by the entrance-exam firm ACT Inc. But high school teachers rank that skill last. They care how students organize their writing" (2000:12). So, while collaborative tasks, peer-group feedback, and self-exploration have become the norm in writing classrooms, it appears that teaching the writing process may overlook key skills and put NNS and basic writers at a disadvantage.

Curricula for college-level composition classrooms for NS and L2 learners continue to focus on the process-approach. Though 1.5 and NS have completed secondary school programs and presumably have had exposure to English language texts and discourse, 1.5 students are often singled out by professors for not writing with native like proficiency and struggle with reading skills. Even advanced and highly trained ESL students, who have generally come from EAP programs, often continue to struggle with their writing once they enter the university (Johns 1997). In an overview of college composition curricula, Weese et

al (1999) described the elements of a typical writing program to include assignments based on readings, self-exploration and collaborative tasks, but no grammar or vocabulary tasks and no summaries or academic text conventions. Unless the NS and NNS students who have been trained via the process approach are extremely adept at deducing linguistic information, they may enter the university with language skills not developed enough to understand their readings very well and/or unable to articulate in writing complex ideas about which they are asked to write.

1.3 Interaction and Evaluation: Writer Visibility in Text

1.3.1 Results of KeyWords Lists

As mentioned above, the intuition that 1.5, ESL, and NS all represented different degrees of L2 writing abilities led to my decision to create a corpus of essays written by these students as a way to look at concrete data on what was occurring. Using *WordSmith Tools*, the three groups of essays were collated (see Chapter 2 for details on the corpus and methodology) and keyword lists were run to compare data from the different groups of essays. The first set of items that stood out when looking at the keywords list comparing 1.5 data to NS data was the difference in use in first person pronouns among the 1.5 students. According to the keywords list, *I, we, me* and *us* were significantly more frequent in the 1.5 list than in the NS corpus (see Chapter 3 for statistics). This suggested that writer self-identification in a text was an area that needed examination for these groups. Similarly, I noticed that the use of certain modals and terms suggesting a statement of necessity – *should, must, may, necessary* - appeared far more frequently in the NS corpus than in the 1.5 corpus (see Chapter 4 for details). After doing some research into the use of these modals in NS and NNS writing, this result seemed contrary to existing literature and therefore prompted further study. Furthermore, in examining relevant literature (please see literature reviews below),

these two features did not appear as disparate as they seemed at first and could be considered together in an examination of ways interaction is achieved in academic arguments and how syntactic and rhetorical preferences of student writers might construct community between writers and readers.

1.3.2 Academic Writing and Writer Identity: Interaction

Underlying much recent research on academic writing is the argument that academic writing is a social practice involving interaction between writers and readers (Ivanič 1998; Halliday 2004; Hyland 2005a, 2005b). This view suggests that writers in the academy use language to evaluate their material, acknowledge others' contributions, make convincing arguments, and claim solidarity with readers. As Hyland states, "Put succinctly, every successful academic text displays the writers' awareness of both its readers and its consequences" (2005b:173-174). This interaction, as Hyland suggests, requires the writer to essentially adopt a point of view about the material in the text through specific linguistic choices to "balance claims for the significance, originality and plausibility of their work against the convictions and expectations of readers" (2005b:176). This sense of writer identity was most notably investigated by Ivanič (1998) who distinguishes four aspects of writer identity in a text: the autobiographical self, the discoursal self, the self as author, and the possibilities of self-hood (1998:23). Ivanič argues that the writer's self-representation is constructed through the interplay of these four aspects of identity and that it is often contradictory and constantly changing (1998:25-32). Another element of Ivanič's argument is that "…individual writers participate in the construction of their discoursal identities through selection (mainly unconscious) among subject positions they feel socially mandated, willing, or daring enough, to occupy" (1998:32). It is via rhetorical choices made in the text that these identities are made manifest.

Smith (1986), in his discussion of features which professional writers employ to establish writer-reader visibility in their writing, notes why the use of these same features can come across as unsuccessful in inexperienced (i.e. first year university student) writers. Smith demonstrates that successful writers set up a range of mood or tone early in the writing and stay within that range throughout, whereas inexperienced writers will often jump out of the range they first established and come across negatively (1986:111). This is often the case when NNS use first person pronouns in academic texts where NS might not (see Chapter 3 for details) or insert modals of necessity to make an assertive claim in a text where NS would not (see Chapter 4 for details).

1.3.3 Academic Writing and Writer Identity: Evaluation

As alluded to above, recognizing that writer interaction takes place in academic texts is important, but how it is actually achieved is not always clear. Researchers have referred to this concept by various names: "stance" (Biber & Finnegan 1989; Conrad & Biber 2003), "metadiscourse" (Hyland 2005a) and "evaluation" (Thompson & Hunston 2003). Thompson and Hunston use *evaluation* as "the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoints on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about" (2003:5). In other words, the writer's position vis-à-vis the propositional content expressed in the writing is articulated through the lexical, syntactic and rhetorical choices the writer makes which gives content and attitude to the reader. Thompson and Hunston distinguish three functions of evaluation:

1. Evaluation expressed the writer's opinion and thus reflects a value system to which s/he adheres. This suggests that there are particular ways of seeing, thinking, and arguing within a discipline.
2. Evaluation is interactive, constructing relations between writers and readers and can therefore be used to influence readers.
3. Evaluation is organizational and reveals contextual patterns (2003:5-6).

These functions indicate that evaluation is critical to academic writing since effective argument requires writers to focus their readers' attention, acknowledge readers'

uncertainties, convey facts and opinions, establish personal authority and guide readers to interpretations. Experienced writers are usually deliberate in their rhetorical choices and know when to claim personal authority or disguise their involvement. Student writers, as Smith (1986) suggests, are not always as successful in their outcome or are not always conscious of the effect their linguistic choices have. Thompson (2001) argues that this level of awareness represents the difference between *novice* and *initiate* writers, between those who seem less aware of writing as a community event and the effect their linguistic choices have on their reader(s) and those who can consciously insert themselves into a text appropriately in order to produce a desired effect on their reader(s).

The keywords list generated from the student corpora I collected illustrated results suggesting frequency differences between 1.5 and NS writers in their use of first-person pronouns and the modals *must* and *should*. Several researchers (Petch-Tyson 1998; Hyland 2001, 2002a, 2005b; Aijmer 2002; Hinkel 2005) have suggested that these two linguistic features reveal something of the writers' interaction and evaluation, and therefore suggested that further research might reveal information on the rhetorical choices made by students in their academic discourse. First person pronouns offer a direct representation of the writer in the text, while modals suggest a less overt way of making a proposition to the reader.

1.4 A Corpus Approach

Corpus studies are becoming more frequent in linguistic research and hardly need justification; however, I would like to briefly explain why I have chosen this format to examine differences in the data of three populations of students:

1. *"Collection of texts".* Hunston defines corpora as a "collection of texts…."(2002:2). This implies that a corpus represents instances of naturally occurring language in use; it gives context to the data and allows the researcher to examine and compare the language in context.

This is particularly useful when examining discourse patterns and is useful for my purposes in being able to compare patterns from three different groups.

2. *"Stored and accessed electronically".* Another part of Hunston's definition of a corpus includes that the data is "stored and accessed electronically" (2002:2). This suggests that a large amount of data can be examined, and, even in a small corpus, can provide information on language use, patterns, and generalizations that might otherwise not be available to the researcher. Salient features, which might otherwise be missed, can be viewed via computerized methods. Automatic retrieval is comprehensive and all instances of a word or pattern can be found. While my corpora are not tagged, the ability to access particular features electronically and analyze the environments in which the features appear makes discourse analysis more possible and less unwieldy if I needed to rely on physical examination of the plethora of essays.

3. *Unreliable intuition*. Though intuition can be a good starting point for research, it is fallible and has been shown to be unreliable when applied to judgments about language use (Hunston 2002; Charles 2004). Corpus studies offer data which allows the researcher to make assessments based on the evidence, rather than on intuition. This has been particularly important for pursuing my argument that I am dealing with two populations of NNS students. As I indicated in Module I, research on 1.5 students has been minimal and very little linguistic analysis has been done, though teachers and instructors have recognized a difference in the population for a long time. Data analysis via corpus studies is bringing to light the exact nature of these differences and helping us to learn more about how to help our students.

For this study, I am focusing primarily on the differences of the 1.5 and NS learners, rather than 1.5 versus ESL learners. Though partly due to scope of the pilot study, the

primary reason to focus most of the attention on the variation between the former pair is based on the following list of reasons:

1. Generation 1.5 students have had their formative education alongside NS students; therefore institutional exposure to English language training and academic subject matter is virtually the same for both groups.

2. Though NS students do not produce *perfect* academic compositions as freshman, they are the norm by which instructors judge the level of writing produced and determine what is 'linguistic' and what is 'other'. Therefore, from a practical view, is seems more appropriate to evaluate 1.5 students' level against what has been determined to be the *norm*.

3. Evaluating 1.5 students against *good* ESL learners, who have had extensive EAP training and who tend to be the stronger academic students from their home countries, represented a mismatch of skill levels and background exposure.

4. *Qualitative and quantitative interpretations*. Finally, concordance lines can reveal frequency of a particular item or pattern in a single corpus or contrast frequency of items among different corpora. While this is useful information, the significance of a frequency can best be utilized by examining the environments of the different items or patterns and thereby move beyond numerical evaluations to qualitative interpretations of purpose, function and more.

For these reasons a corpus approach is particularly suited to this research and will provide a concrete basis for the analysis of variation of particular features in the writing of 1.5, NS, and sometimes ESL writers.

1.5 Research Questions

This study uses two corpora (and sometimes a third) to examine two grammatical features: the syntactic markers of first- person pronoun use and the rhetorical strategies of modal use. The goal is to identify the differences in frequency and function of these two features between the 1.5 writers and the NS writers. Some comparison is also made with ESL students. Through this small investigation, the study hopes to begin to shed light on the

different linguistic needs of the understudied 1.5 students and inform future teaching methods and practices to help this population succeed. The questions driving this pilot study include the following:

1. What does current research suggest about NNS and NS use of the chosen grammatical features?

2. Does the data is this study for 1.5 support current research on traditional NNS writers?

3. What are the main similarities and differences among the corpora in terms of the frequency, function and environment of each feature?
   a) What is the frequency of the grammatical features in each corpus?
   b) How do the grammatical features function/mean in each corpus?
   c) Do the grammatical features function/mean the same way for each population?
   d) In what environments do the features appear in each corpus?

1.6 Outline of Module II

Chapter 2 of this study discusses details of the participants and the corpus methodology utilized herein. Chapters 3 and 4 deal with investigations of individual grammatical features. Because each chapter is quite detailed, there is no overall literature review given in this module; instead relevant literature is discussed in each chapter. Chapter 3 details the syntactic markers of first person pronoun use; Chapter 4 studies the rhetorical choices of modals of obligation and necessity. Chapter 5 concludes the Module with some implications of the study and intentions for Module III. Since the scope of this Module does not allow for complete and comprehension investigation of the issue of evaluation nor of a more complete analysis of linguistic differences among the three corpora, the data analyses in the following chapters will hopefully be a first step to investigating linguistic patterns in 1.5, NS and ESL writers.

CHAPTER 2
THE STUDY AND THE METHODOLOGY

2.1 Introduction to Chapter

The present study relies on methods of corpus analysis to examine and compare discourse and appropriate uses of language among Generation 1.5 writers primarily with NS students, and also traditional ESL students. Please refer again to Module I for a detailed discussion of the population differences of the three learner groups and the justification for a division of the NNS group into the 1.5 learners and ESL learners. The study was initially based on an intuitive and observational belief that 1.5 writers do not have the same linguistic and English learning background as ESL students but are also not native speakers, and therefore have different needs from both of the other groups. Here, I attempt to identify some specific linguistic and rhetorical features which characterize the differences and therefore might help to improve instructional methods for these students. Specifically, the text analysis in this study compares the frequencies and functions of syntactic and rhetorical elements of writer identity in NNS and NS essays (as discussed in Chapter 1) written in response to the same writing prompts.

In this chapter, I will detail the writers included in the study (Section 2.2), the writing prompts to which they responded (Section 2.3), and a description of the subsequent corpus created from those essays (Section 2.4). Finally, I will discuss the methods used to analyze this data (Section 2.5) before proceeding in the following chapters to the detailed analysis of the data.

2.2 The Writers

The writers who participated in this pilot study were all first year university students in either their first or second semester. The 1.5 and ESL students were all registered in a class called *ESL 015: Academic Writing 2 for ESL Students*. It is intended to be a freshman

academic English composition course for students who are not native speakers. The course is a credit course, meaning that it holds the same weight on the student's transcript as *ENGL 015: Rhetoric and Composition*, the traditional freshman English course in which all the NS participants were registered. In both classes, the same readings and essay assignments were given to the students. The 1.5/ESL writers received supplemental private tutoring and additional grammar work. The number of 1.5 and ESL writer-participants is almost equal, while the NS participants are slightly more than double the NNS participants. The reason for this is, due to the fact that the NS group was considered to be the control group, a greater number of their essays were collected in order to assure a broader and more complete picture of the norm.

The students who participated in this study were registered for classes in the Spring 2005 semester and the following Fall 2005 semester. All students registered for the ESL 015 class both semesters were invited to participate. In the Spring 2005, the NS students were recruited from a section of *ENGL 015* taught by a colleague who agreed to coordinate readings and writing prompts with me; I was the instructor for the *ENGL 015* NS section during the Fall 2005. As with the 1.5/ESL population, all students in these two classes were asked to participate. Before soliciting participation by any student, I was required to conform to the ethics standards and practices of The Pennsylvania State University. I was awarded internal review board approval and created a consent form and questionnaires which all participating students were required to sign. Please see Appendix A for a copy of the approved consent form and Appendices B and C for copies of the approved questionnaires. Questionnaires and essays throughout the term were collected from all students who agreed to participate and signed the release form.

Table 2.1 gives some basic demographic information about the three student groups from whom data was collected. The demographic information was collected from questionnaires administered to the students at the start of the semester

STUDENT GROUP	MALE STUDENTS	FEMALE STUDENTS	TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS	AVERAGE AGE OF STUDENTS
1.5	5	6	11	22.3 years
ESL	7	3	10	18.5 years
NS	29	16	45	19.2 years

TABLE 2.1 Numbers and average ages of student participants

As is indicated in Table 2.1, the average age for the 1.5 students is 3-4 years higher than either the ESL or NS groups. This is partly due to their missing primary and/or secondary school time because of immigration/refugee issues, or having to repeat grades due to language issues. In three cases, the increased age was due to the students' waiting before entering university. Six of the 1.5 students had some English language training before coming to the U.S; this amount averaged 3.5 years and five of the six students were under 11 years old when they had this instruction. The average length of time for these learners to have been in the U.S. was 8 years, with an average of 4.8 years in U.S. (pre- university) schools. The L1 groups represented can be seen in Table 2.2.

L1 Language	1.5	ESL
Albanian	2	
Arabic		1
Bosnian	2	
Dinka	1	
Korean		5
Mandarin		1
Spanish	1	2
Turkish		1
Ukranian	3	
Vietnamese	2	

TABLE 2.2: L1 of 1.5 & ESL writer-participants

The international, or ESL, students were the youngest overall group, with an average age of 18.5 years. All of the ESL students had formal English language and EAP classes in their home countries for an average amount of time of five years. All were admitted to the

university with a minimal TOEFL score of 525. Their average amount of time in the U.S. prior to beginning university was 8.7 months.

The NS writer-participants averaged an age of 19.2 years. They were primarily from the Northwestern Pennsylvania region, though a few came from other areas of Pennsylvania, New York, and Ohio; there was even one student originally from Scotland. Only one student identified himself as bilingual (English/Italian). None of the NS students indicated that they had formal English grammar or rhetoric classes prior to university. Most students indicated that grammar had not been taught since (on average) seventh grade (about 12 years old) and that high school English classes consisted of reading Shakespeare plays and some classic novels and writing opinion or response papers. Only about 50% of the students indicated that they had learned to produce a research paper complete with citations and a bibliography.

The academic majors for these students, as well as the 1.5 and ESL students, spanned a wide variety of disciplines including computer science, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, management information systems, business, management, marketing, history, political science, psychology, education and English.

2.3 The Essays and Writing Prompts

Both the NSS and NS composition classes are designed to expose students to the kinds of writing they will be expected to produce at university despite their major area of study. For this pilot study, the readings and essay prompts for all groups were identical. As stated above, during the spring semester 2005, I was the instructor for the 1.5/ESL class while a colleague taught the NS class. I was allowed to survey the NS students and collect copies of their essays. I had access to their on-line course work and sat in on several class sessions to assure that the two classes were receiving similar instruction in terms of lectures, group work in class, homework assignments, journal writing, etc. In the fall 2005, I was the

instructor for both the NNS and NS class, thereby assuring that all groups were receiving the same instruction.

The readings and writing prompts for these courses generally expose students to nonfiction and fiction writing with which they are not familiar. Reading is stressed as much as writing and lessons are generally planned around learning to read actively and critically and write primarily argument essays. The writing prompts were designed to complement discussion of various readings and were intended to present the students with various writing challenges. Students are given five essay assignments throughout the term and each assignment builds on previous assignments so that students are expected to become more sophisticated thinkers and more experienced writers throughout the term. For example, student readings are the basis for an exercise in library research which prepares them to create an annotated bibliography which serves as the starting point for their research project. Each essay assignment consists of three drafts, peer reviews, and, in the case of 1.5 and ESL students, tutoring sessions for each draft. Final drafts are expected to be 3-8 pages (1000-4000 words) depending on the assignment, with proper formatting, citations, etc required. Explicit instruction and discussion occur in class prior to assigning the essays. Different rhetorical patterns are addressed and assigned throughout the term. The specific prompts and rhetorical lessons are given in Table 2.3:

Rhetorical Pattern	Essay Prompt
Descriptive Essay (de)	Write four or more typed pages dealing with the following questions: Select one of your favorite foods, and describe it in detail. Don't just talk about taste and smell; also describe what the food looks like–perhaps noting the contrast of bright red tomatoes against green lettuce in a salad, or smooth dark chocolate against the grainy pale crumbs in a warm chocolate chip cookie. Also consider the texture and how the food feels in your mouth: cold and smooth like ice cream, or coarse and crunchy like tortilla chips, or cool and crispy like raw carrots. Then explain what the food means to you. Do you have memories of this food from your childhood? Do you eat it on special occasions? Do you eat it for comfort, to cheer you up when you're depressed? Can you only get it at a certain restaurant? Do other people share your attitudes about this food, or do they find your fondness for this food strange? You need to find a story that illustrates this food's importance to you–perhaps the story of how it came to be important to you, or one that sums up what it means in your family. As for the other questions, don't just answer yes or no to them, but write several paragraphs that explains your feelings about this food. Then explain how the food is made. Think of all the steps, all the ingredients and all the tools you will need to make this food, and write clear instructions that someone else could follow on how to prepare it. Or, if you can only get this food at a particular restaurant, explain how to get to the restaurant, where to sit, what do order and how to deal with the food when it arrives. Finally, tell the readers of your essay why they should be interested in this food, and persuade them that this food is delicious and worth eating. Do not neglect to give this essay a title. (***Fall 2005***)
Reader-Response (rr)	1. Write an essay that compares and contrasts the qualities necessary for success in the 18th century and those needed in today's world. What qualities does Lord Chesterfield suggest were required for success in the 18th century? Which of these same qualities are required for success in the world today? Why? Which qualities are no longer required, and why not? Are there any qualities necessary for today's success that weren't required in Lord Chesterfield's time? What are they and why are they important today? You might include a discussion of the differences between our society today and, as suggested by Lord Chesterfield's letter, that of the 18th century. (***Spring 2005)*** 2. Write four or more typed pages dealing with the following: Isabella Kong writes: *Nowadays, when individualism and equality are the most prevailing ideas in the world, people may find it very hard to adjust themselves to a traditional family. The means of production have changed so that the adaptive value of the traditional family is no longer obvious. The modern family has advantages, as it will be more open and free, but it will also devastate the respect for the older generation that once was the dominant force in the traditional family.* (Kong, I. The Family in Society. In Haber, S. et al., eds. In Our Own Words. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. p.170). Write an essay in which you discuss the statement above, following these guidelines: • The purpose of the essay is to discuss the ways in which families are changing. Imagine your readers to be other college students who are interested in learning the views of their peers on the topic. • You may express your opinion, but essentially you are RESPONDING TO THE READINGS. You must use examples from <u>two or more</u> of the following essays: o "Traditional vs. Modern Family", textbook, pgs 168-169 o "The Family in Society", pg 170 o "Traditional Family and Modern Society in Africa", pgs 171-173 o "Bean Paste vs. Miniskirts:…..", pgs 174-176 • You must also use examples from at least <u>one</u> of the following readings o "The Married Woman", by Simone de Beauvoir, handout o "The Wife Today", by Marilyn Yalom, handout • Summarize and paraphrase ideas from the readings to which you refer.

	• Include at least one direct quotation. (***Fall 2005)***
Compare-Contrast (cc)	Choose one of the following and write a 4-5 page essay: 1. Write an essay that argues how the research on twins reported by Holden and/or the concepts of cloning discussed by Kolata challenge Sartre's assumption that people are free to shape their own destinies. 2. Write an essay that argues how Sartre's existential philosophy relates to Twain's satirical condemnation of man's nature and Moral Sense. **(*Spring 2002*)**
Annotated Bibliography (ab)	1. As part of your research report, you will need to find three academic sources in addition to our assigned readings on the topic of animal research. We are not interested only in scientific reports that set forth data, but also persuasive or argumentative essays that serve to interpret the data, such as the excerpt from Hans Reusch's book, Slaughter of the Innocent, or Constance Holden's article, *Identical Twins Reared Apart*. One you have found your sources, you are required to write an annotated bibliography for all sources, including the assigned texts. Remember to include in your annotation a brief statement of the overall purpose and methods of the author as well as a statement of how you will use this source in your research report. (***Spring 2005***) 2. See below for the research prompt for this assignment. Your research project will be made up of two important parts: the annotated bibliography and the research essay itself. An annotated bibliography is "a list of citations to books, articles, and documents. Each citation is followed by a brief (usually about 150 words [maximum]) descriptive and evaluative paragraph, the annotation. The purpose of the annotation is to inform the reader of the relevance, accuracy, and quality of the sources cite" (www.library.cornell.edu). Your research must include a MINIMUM of three (3) appropriate sources in addition to the at least two (2) of our class readings. You may use additional sources, such as interviews, personal histories, etc., but these do not count as your minimum of three published sources and/or the two class texts. You will have a minimum of five entries in your annotated bibliography. (***Fall 2005)***
Research Report (rp)	1. See annotated bibliography assignment # 1 above. Write a 4-5 page essay in which you compare or contrast one of the arguments with Reusch's assertions, analyzing and ultimately evaluating their conclusions, and presenting your position on the subject. (***Spring 2005***) 2. RESEARCH PAPER TOPIC (5-8pages of text): *Your topic must be chosen from the two options below. Choose ONE only*. OPTION 1: There is an ongoing debate among U.S. citizens about how immigration influences peoples' identity. Many believe that America is a "melting pot" in which people originally from other countries blend together to become Americans. Others use the metaphor of the "tossed salad", saying that new and old Americans mix together but retain much of their original identity like the different ingredients in a salad that retain their individual characteristics. Still others feel that immigrants do not assimilate into American society but remain "outsiders" who are loyal to their countries of origin and who primarily speak their first languages. People who hold this view often feel that immigrants threaten the integrity of American society. Write an essay in which you explore the topic if immigrants and identity. How do the majority of immigrants define their identity? Based on what you find in your research, do immigrants assimilate into society, or do they remain separate from the rest of society and unchanged by the immigration experience? The purpose of this essay is to use research to support your conclusion about the identity of immigrants. Imagine your audience to be people born in the U.S. who would like to debate the factors that influence the identity of immigrants. OPTION 2: Interracial marriage is becoming much more common in the U.S. However, there are still many people who oppose the idea of marriage between people of different racial or ethnic backgrounds. Write an essay/research paper where you argue an opinion about interracial marriage using research sources to support your position and convince your readers. Imagine your readers to be young, unmarried people who have not made up their minds how they personally feel about interracial marriage. (***Fall 2005)***

Critical Analysis (ca)	Choose one printed advertisement from a magazine and analyze both the images and text, using techniques, vocabulary and methods from at least two of the following of our readings: Berger 1999; Bordo 1999; Kilbourne 2000; Bordo 2003. Your essay should be 3-5 pages long. (***Spring 2005)***
Essay Exam (ee)	Take-Home Essay (70% of your score). Please chose ONE (1) of the questions below and answer as thoroughly and completely as you can in one page of text. In other words, your answer may NOT go beyond one page of double-spaced, 12-point Times Roman Font text with MS Word default page margins. This essay will be due on Friday, October 21 by 2:00 noon. No late work will be accepted. Please remember the following: A. None of these questions ask for your opinion. I am interested in your critical assessment of texts – **NOT YOUR OPINION**. B. You **MUST** use at least **TWO (2) of the texts** listed in your answer. C. Before beginning your essay, please indicate **CLEARLY** which question you will be answering. D. Before beginning your essay, please type the **names of the two** or more texts to which you will be referring in your answer. E. Because this is a take-home essay, I will take off points for typos and grammatical errors. F. You must download your essay onto the appropriate ANGEL dropbox by the due date/time or you will automatically loose 10 points. The only readings you may use to answer your essay question are only the following: • "The Social Sense" by Diane Ackerman • "The Wife Today" by Marilyn Yalom • "The Married Woman" by Simone de Beauvoir Please choose ONE (1) of the following questions to answer: 1.Compare the different perspectives on the social meaning of food preparation as discussed by Ackerman with de Beauvoir's analysis of the domestic duties of women in different cultures. 2.How does Yalom's article, "The Wife Today", suggest that convenience foods, fast foods, and the disappearance of the family dinner reveal new trends when compared with Ackerman's discussion of the traditional role food has played in various cultures? (***Fall 2005)***

TABLE 2.3 Essay types and writing prompts

2.4 Corpus Description and Size

Essays were collected on line and downloaded into *WordSmith Tools* for collation and corpus creation. Early drafts of the 1.5, ESL, and NS essays were collected in order to be able to look at patterns, improvement and eventually diachronic changes. While having early and final drafts collated in the same corpus data effects overall frequency numbers, is not

ideal and will be changed for Module III, it did not seem to harm the data results for this pilot study. The relevant statistics of each corpus appears in Table 2.4.

Corpus Data	1.5	ESL	NS
# of texts	94	90	183
# of tokens (running words) in corpus	88,512	72,272	189,587
Avg. # of tokens per text	941.62	803.02	1035.99
# types (distinct words)	4,533	5,062	9,276
Type/token ratio (TTR)	5.20	7.12	5.00
Standardized TTR (basis: 1,000)	35.64	39.13	36.86
Stand. TTR std. dev.	63.51	58.61	62.46

TABLE 2.4 Corpus data by group

The statistics above indicate the differing size of the corpora; the NS corpus was deliberately intended to include at least twice the number of documents as each of the other two since this was the intended control group and a larger sampling of documents was desired in order to achieve a more representative sampling. The chart does indicate that NS essays tend to include more tokens on average than either of the other two groups, though the overall size of the documents based on standardized ratios is comparable for both the NS and 1.5 corpora. The ESL corpus data appears to suggest that, of the three groups, this group produced the shortest documents with the highest ratio of distinct words. Numerically, the 1.5 and NS corpora seem comparable. Details of these statistics will be referred to when discussing frequency of particular features in Chapters 3 & 4.

2.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Biber et al state that "the goal of corpus-based investigations is not simply to report quantitative findings, but to explore the importance of these findings for learning about the patterns of language use" (1998:5). Thus a corpus-based approach to language analysis presents an opportunity for both quantitative and qualitative investigation and interpretation of data. In this study, the corpora were examined using the keywords function and

concordance program of *WordSmith Tools*. *WordSmith Tools* was chosen because of its wide acceptance in the discipline, its ease and accessibility, and its technical support features. The keywords list comparing the 1.5 essays with the NS essays ranked features in terms of their comparative distribution across the two corpora. Based on these rankings, investigations of various word classes as well as lexical word groups were carried out before deciding on the specific items detailed herein. In each case, the computer program supplied quantitative data for the frequency of the search item. Regularities and repeated patterns of use were identified and used as the basis for the qualitative interpretations that followed. The frequency counts serve as pointers to areas where more detailed examination of certain examples seemed warranted. Thus my method involves identifying what may be significant regularities in concordance lines and keyword lists and then using the contextual information to offer an account of the way(s) these items operate in the texts and among the writer groups. As indicated in Chapter 1, this initial analysis resulted in my decision to focus this pilot study of two features associated with writer/reader interaction and evaluation: first person pronoun use and modals of necessity/obligation.

The subsequent chapters identify how the chosen rhetorical and syntactic features are used in texts written by 1.5 writers and compare this usage to NS usage and often to ESL writers. The data analysis presents comparisons of frequency rates and determines similarities and differences across texts of the different speaker groups.

CHAPTER 3:

SYNTACTIC MARKERS & STRUCTURES: WRITER SELF-IDENTIFICATION THROUGH THE USE OF PRONOUNS

3.1 Introduction and Outline of Chapter

As previously indicated, based on initial frequency investigations, I chose to begin my study with an examination of the differences in use of first person pronouns in the writing of the 1.5, NS, and to some extent the ESL students. The use of first person pronouns allows writers to emphasize their contributions to the text, to foreground important information, and to include the reader(s) in assumed knowledge. Hyland states that "First person…is a powerful means by which writers express an identity by asserting their claim to speak as an authority, and this is a key element of successful academic writing" (2002a:1093-1094). Research (Kuo 1999; Breivega, Dahl & Flottum 2002; Hyland 2002a; John 2005) proves that in advanced and professional academic writing across disciplines, self mention by the writer is an important means to indicate signposting, expressing opinion, commenting on data, and using evidence. Student academic writing courses however tend to address issues of self identity in writing only in passing, if at all (John 2005:280) and when students are not taught to use the first person pronoun, or not taught to use it correctly, they often feel their identity appropriated by the discourse of the academy and feel a loss of control on how to shape that identity (Bartholomae 2005: 60). Several researchers (Ivanič & Simpson 1992; Zamel & Spack 1998; Bartholomae 2005; John 2005) have argued that important discourse conventions of academic writing, such as writer identity, are not presented to students and are therefore a challenge to them. Yet how students employ this rhetorical device is relevant to their success in academic writing.

This chapter then begins the detailed discussion of specific findings from the corpus data, comparing the elements found in the writing of the 1.5 students to those found in the writing of the NS students. Where appropriate I will also include data from the essays of the International (or traditional ESL) students. Specifically, I will examine syntactic choices made by the essay writers to self-identify in their writing. I will identify patterns of use of first person pronouns and examine how these reflect differences in the students' attempt to construct knowledge. Impersonal third person pronouns and relevant constructions (e.g. *one*) will also be reviewed and analyzed.

I will begin Section 3.2 with a review of relevant literature, including information on current trends in teaching rhetoric to NS and NNS students as well as research on NS and NNS writer identity in academic writing. Section 3.3 will discuss specific criteria I use in order to analyze the corpus data. Sections 3.4 and 3.5 focus on student uses of first person pronouns and investigate the student writers' role in academic texts. Section 3.6 examines the appearance of the impersonal third person pronoun *one* in student writing as a method of disguising the student-author's self-reference. Section 3.7 will summarize results and conclusions.

3.2 Literature Review

3.2.1 Conventions of Academic Writing

Academic writing has traditionally been thought to be a fairly static entity with restrictive conventions, including rhetorical elements which would objectify the topic as much as possible in order to give the writing a sense of authority, among other features. One of the biggest misconceptions among students and some writing instructors is the appropriateness of self-identity of the writer through the use of personal pronouns (*I, we, me, us, my, our*) and how to teach this to students.

Historically, composition texts written for both native speakers of English as well as ESL students learning academic writing have instructed students to avoid inserting themselves in the text particularly through the use of personal pronouns; to include themselves in the discussion of their essay was believed to diminish the importance or validity of whatever argument the students were attempting to make. Some examples of this kind of instruction from traditional textbooks and style guides include the following:

1. In a chart illustrating the elements of academic writing for ESL students, Holten and Marasco state that the language should be formal and scientific, the tone objective and impersonal, and the vocabulary should include definitions and specialized terminology (1998:6).

2. Hinkel, in her ESL teacher-training text, states that "First-person pronouns are common in personal narratives and occasionally fiction, but they are relatively rare in academic prose" (2004:138).

3. Rosenwasser and Stephen, in a popular rhetoric text used in U.S. college/university composition classes, instruct students to do the following: "As a general rule, in academic writing you should discuss your subject matter in the third person and avoid the first and second person. There is logic to this rule: most academic analysis focuses on the subject matter rather than on you as you respond to it. If you use the third person, you will keep the attention where it belongs" (2006:263).

Indeed, these represent a few of the texts to argue against the use of first person pronouns in academic writing and may account for reluctance of some students to self-reference in their writing. In informal interviews with students from all three groups, students indicated to me that they had been advised by instructors in secondary school to avoid using 'I' in any academic writing as a matter of course.

Many more texts and teachers, however, avoid the issue of first person pronoun use completely or will mention it only in passing, leaving it to the students themselves to deduce rhetorical and stylistic writing conventions. Therefore, unless students are reading extensively in their disciplines and are able to acquire some implicit understanding of disciplinary conventions, it is unlikely that first year composition students, native speakers or

not, will produce writing which successfully imitates stylistic features seen in professional academic writing.

3.2.2 Observations and Corpus Studies on First Person Pronoun Use in Professional and Student Academic Writing

In his style guide, author James M. Williams argues that the above texts are essentially incorrect and states that academic and scientific writers use active voice and first-person *I* and *we* regularly. Through observations of journal articles, he instructs students that, when academic writers do use the first person, they use it with specific verbs: (1) verbs which refer to research activities (e.g. *study, investigate, examine, observe, see*…) and (2) with verbs referring to the writer's own writing and thinking (e.g. *cite, show, inquire*...) (2005:62-63). Recent corpus linguistic studies on features of academic writing among various disciplines confirm Williams' observations and indicate that the above instruction is misleading to students. Breivega, Dahl & Flottum (2002), Kuo (1999), and Hyland (2002a, 2002c) researched professional writing among the academic disciplines and have concluded that the use of personal pronouns is not consistently absent from journal articles and other academic writings and that the use of personal pronouns in fact varies from discipline to discipline. Corpus studies of student writing have confirmed the underuse of personal pronouns and discoursal differences in their use where they do appear. Petch-Tyson (1998), Hinkel (1997, 2002), Tang & John (1999), Hyland (2002a), and Charles (2002) all looked at L1 and L2 student writers and the use of personal pronouns. Only Petch-Tyson (1998) compared NS to NNS (though traditional ESL students) and found qualitative and quantitative differences. It is not possible for me to make exact comparisons between these studies and my data as I am examining differences between 1.5 and NS writers and since I am not attempting to analyze total pronoun use here. However, I will discuss a few of these

studies in detail since many of the categories and functions mentioned have implications for my analysis.

In their article, Breivega, Dahl, & Flottum compare research articles (hereafter RAs) in three disciplines (medicine, economics, and linguistics) written in three languages (English, French, and Norwegian) in order to determine whether authorial presence differed across national cultures. While they hesitate to draw firm conclusions based on the small size of their corpus[13], they do note that first person pronouns were used in all the RAs and L1 did not seem to be a factor. The discipline in which the author wrote seemed to have more influence on the frequency of first person pronouns used, with medicine surprisingly showing the greatest amount of first person pronouns (2002:224). They do note interesting and important differences in the use of first person singular and plural forms; for example, they suggest that authors use the singular pronouns to indicate a personal attitude about their topic, but choose the plural pronoun to describe actions carried out (2002:225). They conclude that "the use of first person pronouns represents an important contribution to the determination of [academic] cultural identity in academic discourse" (2002:226). Based on this research, and since1.5 and NS students would primarily have exposure to English academic writing, the idea of linguistic features of an L1 influencing rhetorical style would not seem to have implications for 1.5 writers.

Kuo (1999) examines personal pronoun use in 36 scientific RAs in three fields, determines the plural subjective form (*we*) as the most frequently used first person pronoun, and distinguishes three semantic references of *we*: writers exclusively, writers and readers both, the discipline itself. In addition, he has an 'ambiguous' category to account for a small (3.5%) percentage of his examples (1999:126). Kuo identifies 12 discourse functions

[13] This article looked at only 18 RAs and was intended as a pilot study. The researchers concluded that their proposed categories were well suited to a more complete study and will continue creating a corpus of about 500 RAs.

performed by sentences containing first person pronouns and assigns both a semantic reference and discourse function to each instance of *we* (1999:130). Essentially, he finds the following:

1. In 59.7% of cases, exclusive *we* is used to explain what was done.
2. In 17% of cases, exclusive *we* is used for other discourse functions, such as proposing a theory, stating a goal, showing results, comparing approaches, expressing an expectation, etc.
3. In 23.3% of occurrences, inclusive *we* is used to indicate writers and readers and assumes shared knowledge, goals, beliefs, etc.

Kuo's categories work for his analysis of scientific literature, but aren't necessarily easily applicable to the variety of writing prompts in a composition class, as elements of scientific writing (e.g. methodology sections) are not usually part of composition assignments.

Similarly, in his study, Hyland (2002c) examines 240 published RAs in various disciplines and interviews writers. His corpus findings seem to contradict Breivega et. al. and indicate that writers in the "hard sciences and engineering prefer to downplay their personal role to highlight the issue under study, while a stronger identity is claimed in the humanities

DISCIPLINE	**ALL WRITER PRONOUNS**	**SINGULAR (I, me, my)**	**PLURAL (we, us our)**
Marketing	38.2	1.6	36.5
Philosophy	34.5	33.0	1.5
App. Ling.	32.3	17.2	15.0
Sociology	29.4	11.7	17.7
Physics	17.7	0.0	17.7
Biology	15.5	0.0	15.5
Electronic Eng.	11.6	0.0	11.6
Mechanical Eng.	2.6	0.0	2.6
OVERALL	**22.7**	**7.9**	**14.8**

TABLE 3.1: Average frequency of writer pronouns per research paper (Hyland 2002c:353)

and social sciences papers" (2002c:352). In his findings, 75% of the author pronouns in the corpus occurred in the humanities and social sciences (2002c:353). See Table 3.1 for Hyland's results. Hyland explains the difference by suggesting that writers in the sciences adopt a less personal style to strengthen the perception of objectivity and to focus the reader on their results, while writers in the humanities and social sciences use personal pronouns to promote an impression of confidence, as their domains are less precisely measurable (2002c:353). Also interesting to note, as was suggested by Breivega et al., is the noticeable difference between the use of singular versus plural personal pronouns in the data. This topic will be discussed in more detail below.

In addition to professional academic writing, studies of student English academic writing, both as L1 and L2, have yielded interesting results on the differences between taught pronoun use and actual pronoun use (Petch-Tyson 1998, Hinkel 1997 & 2002, Tang & John 1999, Hyland 2002a & 2002c, and Charles 2004). In her study, Petch-Tyson (1998) created a corpus of English essays written by NS as well as four other L1 groups: Swedish, Finnish, Dutch, and French. Her intention was to look at features of interpersonal involvement in the student essays in order to determine the level of writer/reader visibility in L2 writing as compared to NS writing. First person pronouns were only one feature which she looked at and determined that NS used first person pronouns far less frequently than the ESL students (see Table 3.2). In the US corpus, Petch-Tyson found that the first person was used primarily to recount personal experiences and, almost half the time, was used with past tense verbs. However, in the learner corpora, she found that the main function of *I/we* seemed to be

Feature	**Swedish 50.872**	**Finnish 56,910**	**French 58,068**	**Dutch 55,314**	**NS(English) 53,990**
Total first person pronouns per 50,000 words	1998	1531	1202	1195	449

TABLE 3.2: Analysis of first person pronoun use (Adapted from Petch-Tyson 1998:112)

to talk about the writer within the context of the piece of discourse, indicating something about the writer functioning within the discourse or what the writer thinks (1998:111-114). Including data about several features of writer/reader visibility in her analysis, Petch-Tyson concludes that L1 may be relevant in terms of discourse features of visibility. She determined a continuum of relative focus of interpersonal involvement versus message content based on the writers' L1, with Swedish L1 writers having the highest level of visibility in the L2 texts and the US (NS) writers having the lowest. These findings contradict the Breivega et al (2002) data reported above on professional academic writing; these researchers concluded that it was the academic discipline, not the L1 which influenced the use of pronouns. Though I am primarily looking at 1.5 writers who have little-to-no experience with academic writing in their L1, the discrepancy of these findings has implications for including discussion of students' L1 in the data analysis.

Like Petch-Tyson, Hinkel (1997, 2002) looked at ESL student writing and its features. By analyzing 150 student essays, she found first person pronoun usage to be lower in NNS writing, and argues that the causes are L1 interference and cultural transference (1997:363-364, 2002:84). Hinkel states that, when first person pronouns are used, they reflect the students' need to explain their position vis-à-vis the issue/topic being discussed, rather than describe the importance of the issue or its causes (2002:84-85). While this is similar to the analysis suggested by Tang & John (1999), there are some questions about Hinkel's results. Though detailed in her analysis of L2 writing features, Hinkel is using 'essays' of only 250 words each and each of her prompts asks the students to express an opinion (1997, 2002). Opinion papers by their nature will include an explanation of position, and writings of 250 words give students little time or space to develop a well reasoned or researched argument. Despite problems of study design, her findings are in line with those of other researchers.

In a study of student academic writing, Tang & John (2002) look at first person pronoun use across varying disciplines. Basing their work on Ivanič's (1998) distinction between discourse and genre, they create a taxonomy of six categories of the use of *I* that appear in the student essays, each representing a progressively more powerful authorial presence within the text (see Table 3.3). By examining the first person pronoun use in 27 essays of 1000 words written by first year university students in Singapore, they found that approximately 81% of the students used the first person pronouns in their writing, though sparingly. It is important to note here that the writing prompt for these essays asked the students to respond to a quote by referring to reading they had been doing in class. This is relevant as the prompt results in essays of substantial size which were to be based on reading references and not solely personal opinion. This is more representative of the kind of writing students are asked to do at the university level, unlike Hinkel's writing prompts, and therefore more likely to produce writing samples with relevant features. Of the 92 instances of first person pronoun usages, the majority of uses fell into the 'less powerful' end of the spectrum (see Table 3.3), suggesting that students do in fact use first person pronouns but, unlike their professional counterparts, they tend to use pronouns to align themselves with membership in a discourse community and/or to take a non-threatening and inclusive role as guide through a process. Tang & John suggest that the low occurrences of *I* in the categories indicating a more powerful authorial presence indicates students' lack of confidence in aligning

No 'I'	'I'as representative	'I' as guide	'I' as architect	'I' as recounter	'I' as opinion-holder	'I' as originator
18.6% of 27 total essays had no occurrences	42.39% of 92 total occurrences	33.7% of 92 total occurrences	14.1% of 92 total occurrences	0	4.49% of 92 total occurrences	5.61% of 92 total occurrences
Least powerful authorial presence →	→	→	→	→	→	→ *Most powerful authorial presence*

TABLE 3.3: Results of first person pronoun use study (Adapted from Tang & John 1999:S29)

themselves with writers and lecturers as "authoritative others"(1999:S34); they state "…it is possible that students feel insecure about the validity of their claims, seeing themselves to be at one of the lowest rungs of the academic ladder"(1999:S34). Tang & John do not detail the difference in numbers between the use of first person singular pronoun and first person plural pronoun use in their study, though their corpus examples employ almost entirely first person singular pronoun references.

Like Tang & John (1999), Hyland (2002a) concludes that student writers produce fewer personal pronouns than expert writers and use them in less important discourse functions. By comparing his analysis of 240 'expert' RAs with 64 research reports (hereafter RPs) written by Hong Kong undergraduates, Hyland observes expert writers are four times more likely to use first person references than students, with figures higher for the soft disciplines than the hard ones (2002a:1098), and that "Almost half the occurrences of self-mention [in the RAs] were used to present arguments or claims, compared with only a quarter in the student texts, while the least frequent use in the research articles, stating a purpose, was the most common in the [student] project reports" (2002a:1099). Hyland argues that the points at which a writer chooses to self-reference indicate important rhetorical choices, and he establishes a taxonomy of first person pronoun use similar to that of Tang & John (1999), but focuses more on the discoursal function of the self-reference, rather than distinguishing between the generic and inclusive uses of the pronoun (2002a:1098-1099). Hyland also indicates that first person singular pronouns accounted for 60% of the total first person pronoun use (2002a:1097). (See Table 3.4). Though his focus is on function, Hyland does come to similar conclusions as Tang & John (1999) and finds that those functions which require a stronger sense of authorial presence and authority are missing-to-minimal in student writing.

Charles (2002) challenges both Hyland (2002a & 200b) and Kuo (1999) in her analysis of stance in student theses in two disciplines. By examining not just pronoun

FUNCTION	PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCES IN RAs	PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCES IN RPs
Explaining a procedure	38%	31%
Stating results or claim	26%	16%
Elaborating an argument	21%	8%
Stating a goal/purpose	15%	36%
Expressing self-benefits	0%	9%

TABLE 3.4: Discourse functions of self-mention is expert RAs and student RPs (Hyland 2002A:1099-1100)

use but the verbs which collocate with these pronouns, she suggests that the discourse functions as delineated by Hyland (2002a & 200b) and Kuo (1999) do not adequately account for all uses, particularly the uses of inclusive and exclusive *we* (2002:191-194). For example, Hyland's category "Expressing self-benefits" was appropriate for the research prompt his students were responding too; but as he himself notes (2002a:1100), this is not a function which occurs in professional writing, nor was it part of any prompt for any assignment given to students in my study; therefore it is not a replicable feature to look at. Additionally, Charles argues that in some instances where Hyland and Kuo might label a particular pronoun use as exclusive *we*, her analysis suggests that many of those examples have an element of inclusivity especially where the thesis author wants to create a consensus with the reader by involving the reader in the work of the discipline, where the thesis author wants to construct an appropriate voice as a candidate in a professional community (2002:192). Examples Charles gives include modal verbs or *if*-clauses and where the use of *I* would seem awkward:

> 1. "…for significant cases, we might expect that the Court would adopt unanimity relatively more often than 8:1 or even 7:2 decisions…"
>
> 2. "If we assume that the dominant mode which is contributing to this is the Si-H bond stretch…." (2002:192).

Charles goes on to point out further problems with the functional analyses and goes to suggest that method of clause analysis, where one examines the subject and verb environment, may be more appropriate to capture the function of the entire sentence

(2002:194). While Charles' purpose is to discover elements of stance and her writers are advanced (post graduate student) NS writers, I would like to include elements of her analytical theory, along with elements of Hyland (2002a) and Tang & John (1999) in order to fully examine the use of first person pronouns in the 1.5 and NS data. To that end, while identifying first person pronoun use, I will also look at the clause environments, particularly the verbs, which students choose.

3.2.3 Self-Reference in the Third Person: One

One other pronoun I would like to look at in this study is the impersonal third person pronoun, *one*, as a source of self-reference. While I do not intend to fully analyze total pronoun use in my data, this third person reference appears in an interesting way and warrants some discussion. I found little literature on its appearance in student academic writing, though Kuo (1999) does assert that *one* is used by expert writers to refer to researchers in general, to the writer exclusively when giving an opinion, or to writers and readers (1999:129). In her study, Charles (2002) quotes a specialist informant from the chemistry field who claims that *one* is used only to refer to the disciplinary community as a whole (2002:197). Because of some surprising results in analyzing *one* in my data, I will take some time to review the information.[14]

3.3 Criteria for Analysis

The absence of clear direction in the pedagogy 1.5 (and NS) students receive and the preferred practices of authorial concealment mean that self-mention can be a considerable problem for these students. The questions I am trying to answer in this section include:

A. What is the frequency of first person pronoun occurrence in G1.5 student writing and how does that compare to NS student writing?

[14] Differences in use of *one* may/may not be attributable to differences in American versus British dialect choices. This variable will not be discussed in this Module but suggests an area for further study.

B. What are the features and functions of first person pronoun use and other indications of writer self-reference between 1.5 student writers and NS student writers and, where necessary, ESL writers?
C. Do first person pronouns appear only in particular genres of essays?
D. How does the data from these corpora compare to current research?

In order to address these questions, I will first look at frequency data as compiled by *WordSmith Tools* and compare the results of my corpus data against what other researchers have found about writer self-reference in academic texts. I will also examine specific features of 1.5 essays as compared to the NS and ESL essays I collected.

The criteria I will use to categorize the role/function of the pronoun will be based primarily on the taxonomy suggested by Tang & John (1999), with some modification based on my corpus content. I will, for example, eliminate their category of "No 'I'" (1999:S29) as all my collected essays included first person pronouns in some form. Other modifications include some elements from Hyland (2002a) and Charles (2002). Hyland's discourse functions are helpful to explain the role of the pronoun in the text, though, as explained above (see section 3.2.3), some of his categories do not function appropriately for my data. Similarly, Charles explains the use of pronouns and their functions by looking at environment and determining the function often by the verb used in the clause. While I find this useful in my analysis, her verb categories are sometimes ambiguous and data for my corpora often can fall into more than one of her categories. For example, Charles classifies verbs as falling into several categories and names the categories using the most frequent verb in each grouping[15]: ARGUE, SHOW, FIND, THINK, MEAN (2002:150). However, the following example from my 1.5 corpus could fall into several categories:

<..they feel that it's the right thing to do. **I**'m going to say that it's wrong…>(gen0034cc)[16]

[15] Charles grouped verbs by similar function/meaning chose the verb which appeared most frequently in each category to name that category. The category name, then, does not indicate function of the category.
[16] Please see List of Conventions at the beginning of this Module for identifying File Codes.

According to Charles' categories, this clause refers to a situation to be determined in the future (MEAN); at the same time, one could argue that the writer is concerned with indicating a fact (SHOW), concerned with knowing or thinking something (SHOW, THINK), or that the writer is arguing a point (ARGUE). These possible ambiguities led me to include some clause and verb information in determining the role and function of the pronoun, but not adhering to the same categories for verbs.

Essentially, I am proposing six categories of first person pronoun use in my corpora (see Table 3.5). While the categories are essentially taken from Tang & John (1999) and include some elements from Hyland (2002a) and Charles (2002), I collapse and combine two of Tang & John's categories (guide and architect) into one; based on the analysis of my data, this seemed more representative and efficient. Also, I add an additional category: *I/We* as source of supporting information. In this category, writers include personal experience as a kind of support or proof of their argument, much like they would use research data. Since several researchers (Petch-Tyson 1998, Hinkel 1997 & 2002) indicated that this was a feature of NNS writing and since it is prevalent in my corpora, a category to account for this was needed.

3.4 I, Me, My

3.4.1 Frequency of I, Me, My

First person singular pronouns appeared far more frequently in the 1.5 corpus than in the NS corpus, but not as frequently as in the ESL corpus. As calculated using *WordSmith* (version 4.0), a chart (see Table 3.6) summing up the frequency comparisons indicates that the use of first person singular pronouns by 1.5 writers is almost twice that of NS students and resembles more the use by ESL writers. Specifically, in the case of *I* and the determiner *my*, 1.5 writers use that pronoun about twice as much as NS writers and use *me* almost three times

***I/We* as the representative**	***I/We* as the guide through the essay**	***I/We* as recounter of the research/writing process**	***I/We* as source of supporting information**	***I/We* as opinion-holder**	***I/We* as originator**
-Usually *we/us* Writer is proxy for larger group -Pronoun signals ownership of some universal or common property -Can suggest hypothetical situation -Can reduce writer to a non-entity	-Shows reader through the essay -Usually *I* -Foregrounds person who organizes, writes -Informs readers of goal -Locates reader and writer together in time & place -draws readers' attention to obvious points	-Describes/ recounts steps of research/writing process - Explains procedures/ methodology	-Writer inserts personal experience as support/ evidence -Narratives	-Elaborates an argument -Shares opinion, attitude, view -Expresses agreement, disagreement	-Writer states claims/ results -Writer claims authority -Writer claims advancing knowledge in essay -Writer advises reader -Most face-threatening
Clauses/ Phrases: - ….causes us to…, we know that….	Verbs: *-see, note, observe, examine* *-Will* +verb like *discuss, look,* etc. Clauses/ Phrases: *-So far we have seen….* *-In my essay, I will…* *-I will examine…*	Verbs: *– Work, interview, read, collect, record* Clauses/ Phrases: *-When I interviewed….*	Verbs: *– remember* and action verbs Clauses/ Phrases: *-I remember a time when…* *-we emigrated to…*	Verbs: *– think, feel, believe, agree* Clauses/ Phrases: *-Contrary to what X states,….* *-we can determine from X….*	Clauses/ Phrases: *-To me…..,* *-As I see it….*

TABLE 3.5 Categories of *I/We* use with explanation and environments

more. Analysis of *myself* and *my* showed that in all three corpora, these pronouns were used minimally and did not calculate for keyness[17]. In addition to *I*, the first person pronouns *me* and *my* were examined. As Table 3.6 illustrates, the frequency of these pronouns compare to the occurrences of *I* in the three corpora. The NS writers use these pronouns about half as often as the 1.5 and ESL writers.

[17] As *WordSmith* defines *keyness*, these pronouns did not appear on Key Word lists comparing 1.5 corpus data to NS data, or ESL corpus data to NS data.

First Person Singular Pronoun	1.5 Corpus 87,107 tokens 4,533 types 94 texts	ESL Corpus 71,050 tokens 5,062 types 90 texts	NS Corpus 185,642 tokens 9,276 types 183 texts
I	.88% = 781 occurrences	1.07%= 775 occurrences	.46% =867 occurrences
me	.20% = 177 occurrences	.24% = 177 occurrences	.07% = 134 occurrences
my	.69% = 613 occurrences	.64% = 463 occurrences	.32% = 604 occurrences

TABLE 3.6 Key frequency comparisons of *I, me, my* from three corpora as figured by *WordSmith*

Frequency numbers seem to support the research of Petch-Tyson (1998), Tang & John (1999), and Hyland (2002a, 2002c) in their assertion that NS student writers use fewer first person pronouns than their NNS counterparts. This observation has implications for writing instruction for 1.5 students. These students do not have the formal English training of their ESL counterparts, yet exhibit features in their writing in this instance similar to ESL writers, but not NS writers. That is, though they are educated in the same setting as NS students, in terms of frequency of first person pronouns, 1.5 writers are more similar to ESL writers that to NS writers.

3.4.2 Function of I, Me, My

Frequency provides only part of the picture of writer self-reference. The meaning or discourse function behind the writers' choice of first person pronoun use is relevant to determining the writers' position on a topic, the way the writers analyze and/or interpret data, and more. In short, a writer's choice to self-reference and the means s/he chooses to do that establish a position and are important in establishing academic identity. The variety of uses of *I* by the student writers in my corpora suggests a wide range of acceptable academic conventions and identities by the different student groups involved. As Table 3.6 indicates, the functions of *I* usage in the texts show interesting variation. Unlike the frequency-only numbers, where 1.5 and ESL students showed similar results, the occurrences of *I, me, my* in

the 1.5 and NS corpora show a similar spread across functions, whereas ESL usage is far more limited.

Corpus and Total Occurrences of *I* in Corpus	***I* as representa-tive**	***I* as guide through essay**	***I* as recounter of research/ writing process**	***I* as source of supporting informa-tion**	***I* as opinion-holder**	***I* as orginator**
1.5 *I* =781 occur-rences (hereafter **occ.**)	.5%= 4 occ.	4.7%= 37 occ.	2.8%= 22 occ.	86%= 674 occ.	4.6%= 36 occ.	1%= 8 occ.
ESL *I* = 775 occ.		3%= 23 occ.	1%= 2 occ.	96%= 750 occ.		
NS *I* = 867 occ.	2%= 21 occ.	5.7%= 50 occ.	2%= 20 occ.	81%= 701 occ.	8.5%= 74 occ.	.1%= 1 occ.

TABLE 3.7 Occurrences of *I* in 1.5, ESL, and NS corpora

All three corpora indicate the highest usage is in the 'Source' category. Examples include:

3a. <… For an example of twins that live together, **I** have friends back home who are twins…> (gen0003cc)

3b. <… The first time **I** was introduced to gingerbread cookies might have been the time earlier in **my** childhood…> (esl0539de)

3c. <…these qualities when **I** encounter other people they will receive the same back. **I** would be very impolite if **I** did not follow one of Chesterfield's qualities…> (nss1007rr)

What is different among the three corpora however is that, for the NS essays, the usage of *I, me, my* in this category falls almost exclusively among only two of the essays prompts: the descriptive (food) essay and the reader-response (Lord Chesterfield) essay.[18] For both the 1.5 and ESL essays, the occurrences of *I* in this category fall across all essay prompts. Some examples include:

[18] Please refer to Chapter 2 for details of study methodology, participants, writing prompts, etc.

3d. From a research essay:
<…Most immigrants came here with little knowledge of English language. **I** worked at one local machine shop that had positions that did not require much…> (gen0079rp)
3e. From an essay exam:
<… **I** have been working and paying taxes since **I** first got a job at age 16 and, according to Windy Schwartz, …> (gen0091ee)

When we look more closely at 1.5 and NS usage, we see similarities in the usage of *I* as guide and as recounter of the writing/research process. Representative examples include:

Guide

3f. 1.5: <…**I** will compare the ideas of Twain's essay about how human nature changed over time.> (gen0003cc)
3g. NS: <… **I** will use this article to demonstrate some of the benefits of being in an interracial marriage…> (ns1134ab)

Recounter

3h. 1.5: <….**I** have also ordered two books for this research…> (gen00656ab)
3i. NS: <…When **I** read this for the first time **I** definitely thought that this was space for one, but…> (ns1151rp)

Also interesting are the differences between the two corpora. While NS writers use *I* in a more general, representative way (2%/21 occ.) and express opinion using *I* more than twice the 1.5 students (8.5%/74 occ. vs. 4.6%/36 occ., respectively), the 1.5 writers use the first person to indicate themselves as the originators of ideas, stating claims and giving advice to the readers:

3j. <… some that don't apply to the 21st century. There is one difference from what **I** said and that's, "This is **my** opinion and what applies today can be different from you…>(gen0003rr)

3k. <… Therefore **I** can make **my** own essay stronger by using Faynzilbert's idea to back up **my** idea. By doing this, it will make the readers think what **I** am trying to say in **my** essay is a fact…> (gen0064ab)

3l. <…It is not only worth eating it would be a shame not to try it. So **I** would recommend you to get up and try this recipe so you can see for yourself or **I** could hook you up with one for $29.99. You can have **my** word you will not regret it …> (gen0021de)

The differences in use of *I* in the 'originator' category among the three corpora is worth noting: **1.5**: 1%/8 occ. **ESL**: 0 **NS**: .1%/1occ.

Tang & John (1999) note in their study that there was an extremely low usage of the pronoun in this category. While the frequency numbers here are also low, they do represent quite

different frequency of uses of *I* in this category among the three groups; here, the 1.5 students used this function of the pronoun significantly more than the other student groups and across writing prompts.

A potential problem to note in examining these data has to do with the clustering of the pronoun use. As can be seen in examples 3j-l above, the first person pronoun often seems to appear repeatedly in a particular portion of the document. In order to determine a more accurate picture of use of linguistic features, in Module III I will have to address issues of whether/how to consider this clustering of items as a single entry or as multiple entries, as I've done here.

3.5 We, Us, Our

3.5.1 Frequency of We, Us, Our

Similar to the results observed by Breivega et al. (2002) in their study, first person plural pronouns appeared less frequently than the singular pronouns in all three corpora. Frequency numbers alone for the three corpora look very similar. Whereas as the

First Person Plural Pronoun	**1.5 Corpus** **87,107 tokens** **4,533 types** **94 texts**	**ESL Corpus** **71,050 tokens** **5,062 types** **90 texts**	**NS Corpus** **185,642 tokens** **9,276 types** **183 texts**
we	.5% = 471 occurrences	.4% = 278 occurrences	.3% =507 occurrences
us	.1% = 84 occurrences	.07% = 48 occurrences	.07% = 133 occurrences
our	.2% = 160 occurrences	.2% = 112 occurrences	.2% = 291 occurrences

TABLE 3.8 Key frequency comparisons of *We,Us,Our* from three corpora as figured by *WordSmith*

numbers indicated that *I, me*, and *my* appeared almost twice as often in the 1.5 and ESL corpora as compared to the NS corpus, Table 3.7 illustrates that the numbers for *we, us*, and *our* indicate no such discrepancy; percentage-wise, the plural pronouns seem to appear equally among all three groups. Analysis of *ourselves* and *ours* showed that in all three corpora, these pronouns were used minimally and did not calculate for keyness. In fact, *ours* does not appear at all in either the 1.5 or ESL corpora and only four times in the NS corpus.

3.5.2 Function of We, Us, Our

The variety of uses of *we* by the student writers in the corpora suggests a varied range of acceptable academic conventions and identities by the different student groups

Corpus and Total Occurrences of *We* in Corpus	***We* as representative**	***We* as guide through essay**	***We* as recounter of research/ writing process**	***We* as source of supporting information**	***We* as opinion-holder**	***We* as originator**
1.5 *we* =471 occ.	11%= 53 occ.	1.1% = 5 occ.	1.9% = 9 occ.	82.5% = 389 occ.	2.1% = 10 occ.	1% = 5 occ.
ESL *we* = 278 occ.	46.6 % = 129 occ.	4% = 11 occ.	1.4% = 4 occ.	48% = 134 occ		
NS *we* = 507 occ.	53% = 270 occ.	1.4% = 7 occ.	3.9% = 20 occ.	36% = 183 occ.	3.9% = 20 occ.	1.3% = 7 occ.

TABLE 3.9 Occurrences of *We* in 1.5, ESL, and NS corpora

involved which was not visible by looking solely at frequency of occurrences. As Table 3.8 indicates, the functions of *we* usage in the texts show some surprising variation. Unlike the frequency-only numbers, where all three student groups showed similar results, the occurrences of *we* in the 1.5 and NS corpora are spread across all functions, whereas ESL usage is nonexistent in the more face-threatening categories of opinion-holder and originator. The function of *us* and *our* also mirrors the distribution of the functions of *we*.

Unlike the use of *I*, where the highest usage for all three corpora was in the 'Deliverer/Source' category, the plural pronoun shows a different distribution. By far, the most common use of the plural pronoun for 1.5 writers is the 'Deliverer/Source' category. These students are using personal examples as sources of information more than twice that of the NS students and almost twice as much as the ESL writers. For NS and ESL writers both, *we* as deliverer/source appears only in the reader response essay (traditional vs. modern

family) or in the description essay (food). For the 1.5 writers, however, this use of *we* appears also in the research project, annotated bibliography, and essay exam prompts; some examples include:

> Research Project:
> 3m. <…**We** my brother, sisters, and I, had to do whatever my father said without question…> (gen0078rp)
>
> 3n. <… My sister and I would shut up because **we** knew we were at fault…> (gen0075rp)
>
> Essay Exam:
> 3o. <… was completely independent, however **we** were not isolated from one another. **We** had a very close relationship, and had a pretty good idea what was going on…> (gen0086ee)
>
> 3p. <…My family was the first to move and **we** moved to the United States. When **we** first moved here **we** still lived as…> (gen0085ee)

Another striking difference in use/function of the plural pronoun is in the representative category. For NS writers, this was the most prominent use of *we* by a wide margin. ESL writers also use this function notably as both these groups try to establish a writer/reader community and draw readers into their common experience:

> 3q. <…Due to developments in technology, **we** are able to create the clones with DNA…> (esl0501rr)
>
> 3r. <…**We** as students have chosen to continue our education in hopes of obtaining the best possible job…> (ns1015rr)

For 1.5 writers, however, this use of the plural pronoun accounts for only 11% of occurrences. There seems to be no pattern regarding the type of writing in which this usage occurs; it appears in response to multiple essay prompts. Unlike NS or ESL writers, the 1.5 writers inserted an inclusive *we* less frequently into their arguments. There are a number of intriguing possibilities for this. One may be that these readers have not had a great deal of experience reading professional academic texts, and they may not be savvy enough readers to discern certain discourse devices and then imitate them; perhaps their NS counterparts may have better reading skills. Another may be that 1.5 students choose alternate expressions to substitute for the inclusive *we*. Given the populations I am studying, another important possibility to consider would be the definition of *we*, particularly for the 1.5 student group:

who comprises the community represented by *we?* For a group of students who have often been marginalized, *we* might be experienced by them as 'my [ethnic] community' and not 'my academic community'. The scope of this small pilot study however does not allow for a complete analysis of writer identity and expression, but further research is warranted in this area for these students.

Both 1.5 and NS writers exhibit similar usage of *we* as guide, opinion-holder and originator. NS writers, however, do exhibit more use of the recounter function than 1.5 students: 3.9% (NS) to 1.9% (1.5). While their usage of the singular pronoun for this function was very close, NS writers use *we* more frequently to engage their readers in their thought process and analyses:

> 3s. <…The article demonstrates that if **we** are to use animals for any purpose, it should me done in a humane way…> (ns1091rp)
>
> 3t. <… **we** see a similarity in the writings. Both of these authors show how **we**, as humans, must work to get our food…> (ns1178ee)

Interestingly, 1.5 writers seem to use this function more when paraphrasing or reiterating what one author says, rather than interpreting the data:

> 3u. <…Darwin made the point that, **we** are evolved from the lower animal, so **we** are the higher animal…> (gen0008rp)
>
> 3v. <…His main idea was that the society **we** live in is a free society in which government works for people, protecting them…> (gen0065ab)

There is a qualitative difference to the way the 1.5 students use *we* in the functions outside basic narrative. The concept of the inclusive *we* is less prevalent in their discourse and they seem more comfortable using the singular pronoun, referring to themselves as individuals, rather than build group solidarity with the inclusive *we*.

Appendix C gives further examples of usage of the first person pronouns by function.

3.6 Hidden Averral: *One*

Before leaving the topic of self-reference completely, it is important to discuss a third person pronoun which appeared in the data. As mentioned above (section 3.2.3), *one* can be

used as a self-reference. Charles (2002) uses Hunston's (2000:190-192) label of Hidden Averral to refer to the use of *one* (among other linguistic choices) as the human subject where the writer consciously or unconsciously wants to hide her/himself as the source of the data (Charles 2002:195). The indeterminacy of the pronoun can be used to obscure the writer's stance as originator of knowledge.

There was great disparity between the 1.5 writers and the NS writers use of this pronoun. Out of 295 uses of the word *one* in the 1.5 corpus, it appears only once as an impersonal third person pronoun and that was as part of a quotation. However, NS and ESL writers both used *one* in its pronoun form. In the NS corpus, *one* appears 674 times, with 168 of those instances being subject/object pronouns where the referent may refer to the writer, the writer and reader, and/or the discourse community. There appeared 25 instances where the possessive form (*one's*) appears indicating a similar stance. Similarly the ESL corpus indicated 374 instances of *one*, with 44 being the potentially self-referencing pronoun and 4 in the possessive form.

Unlike Charles' (2002:197) data, not all instances of NS use appear with what Charles labels as ARGUE verbs. Interestingly, the 81% (136 out of 168) of uses of this pronoun form in the NS corpus was in response to the writing prompt asking students to respond to the essay by Lord Chesterfield, "Letter to My Nephew". This 18th century writing was formal in tone and stylistically not typical of the reading students would do. Their essays seemed to reflect the tone and language of Lord Chesterfield's letter, where he uses the impersonal *one* quite frequently. It would appear then that the NS students on either a conscious or unconscious level took on conventions they read in Chesterfield's work and reproduced those in their own writing. Interestingly, this was not a convention that appeared consistently in their writing which is why I suggest it might have been unconscious imitation.

This imitation did not occur in the 1.5 Chesterfield essays, as is evidenced by the complete lack of the pronoun *one* appearing in their data at all, nor in the ESL Chesterfield essays, though these students did have a minimal usage of *one*, very similar to their use of *we*. The lack of use of this self-reference in the 1.5 corpus also has interesting implications in light of their reduced use of *we*, especially in the representative sense. It also suggests that, while NS writers may be discerning some discourse elements through their reading, 1.5 students seem to deduce less non-content information from their reading; this suggests possible implications for reading studies as well as research into inductive and deductive learning.

3.7 Conclusions and Recommendations

3.7.1 Conclusions

What we can conclude from this limited study is that, similar to other researchers' findings, data indicates that NS writers do tend to use first person pronouns less often than NNS writers. Evidence from the 1.5 corpus suggests that those student writers prefer the use of the singular pronoun to the plural or impersonal third person. These results can be interpreted in different ways. For example, results for the 1.5 students could suggest limited reading skills and/or limited experience in inductive learning; alternatively, the results could also suggest that 1.5 students have more confidence in individual work. The data also shows interesting correlations in writing development between the 1.5 and NS writers, and different correlations between the 1.5 and ESL writers, placing our 1.5 students in a kind of developmental limbo where they struggle with mastering elements of language and discourse.

3.7.2 Recommendations

While I have looked at writer self-reference in two corpora, and minimally in a third, primarily through the use of first person pronouns, I have given only an overview of the

results of the data collection. More thorough analysis needs to be given of the pronouns and determiners *me, my, us, our*. Additionally, ways of self-referencing using *it*-subject clauses, *there* clauses, passive voice, and other non-human subjects[19] must be studied in order to give a clear picture of how students use these rhetorical devices and what the differences in use mean for 1.5 writers in terms of their production of acceptable academic writing. For a thorough comparison, the ESL data needs to be more included in the analysis. Finally, elements which were not considered at all in this small study need to be examined and considered; the influence of the L1 culture of discourse feature visibility could yield interesting answers to questions regarding, for example, the difference between singular and plural pronoun use. Alternative forms of self-reference were not considered nor did I consider errors in the study and the consequences of inappropriate self-reference.

[19] In my data, for example, only ESL writers used patterns such as "in my essay…..", "my paper…", or "this essay will show…."

CHAPTER 4

RHETORICAL STRATEGIES & MARKERS: WRITER INTERACTION THROUGH THE USE OF MODAL VERBS OF OBLIGATION & NECESSITY

4.1 Introduction and Outline of Chapter

4.1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will examine one way 1.5 writers construe interaction between themselves and readers through the use of modal verbs of necessity and obligation [*must, should, ought to*]. The chapter also includes discussion of semi-modal expressions [e.g. *has/have to, need(s) (to)*]. I then compare the 1.5 use to NS writers and to ESL writers where appropriate. Frequency differences on the keywords list comparing 1.5 and NS essays indicated that there was a significant difference in usage, particularly for *should* and *must*, between the NS students and the 1.5 students, with NS students showing a significantly higher usage. As this contradicted current research (discussed below), and as the propositions suggested by these modals related to evaluation and stance in a text, these items required study.

Modal auxiliaries are a much researched topic in general (Mitchell 1988; Hyland 1989, 2001, 2002b; Altman 1990; Hinkel 1995, 2002; Hyland & Milton 1997; Biber et al 1999, 2002; Hunston 2000, 2004; Aijmer 2002; Hunston & Thompson 2003; Halliday 2004). Modal verbs of obligation and necessity are especially interesting to focus on here because the strength and subtleties of meaning these modals can express can be problematic for L2 writers. Just as the choice of first person pronoun use can signal a strong sense of writer identity, so too can the force suggested by the use of *must* or the subtler suggestion made by the use of *should* indicate a continuum of writer stance which may be interpreted as appropriate or not by the reader. Researchers (Altman 1990, Hinkel 1995 & 2002, Hyland &

Milton 1997, Aijmer 2002, Hyland 2002b) have indicated that the use of these modals by NNS differ significantly from their use by NS writers.

Though research often points out that modal meaning can be expressed by other means (Stubbs 1986, Halliday 1994, Hyland & Milton 1997, Biber et al 1999), the scope of this pilot study requires that I focus only on a narrow aspect of the modal issue. Since there were no studies found on the use of modals by 1.5 writers, and since these modals/semi-modals express a less ambiguous aspect of stance than some of the other modal expressions, it seemed reasonable to look at the range and frequency of modal use in this one focused area in order to gain a better a understanding of the rhetorical behaviors of 1.5 students. This feature also seemed a logical continuation of the study of writer identity in the text (see Chapter 3) as the use of *must* can be argued to indicate an assertive voice of the writer, much as use *I* in a text signals the obvious presence of the writer. Mitchell (1988) suggests that *should* indicates a more remote relationship between the writer and the message and can correlate to the absence of personal pronoun in a text and even the use of the passive voice in the text.

4.1.2 Outline of Chapter

Section 4.2 will begin with a review of relevant literature and approaches to modal verb interpretation. In section 4.3, gleaned from the literature, I will detail the criteria for analysis of these terms in the collected data. Section 4.4 will examine the frequency and function of the modals *must, should, ought to*, while section 4.5 studies the semi-modal expressions *have to* and *need to*. Finally, section 4.6 will discuss the conclusions of the data analysis and the implications for further research.

4.2 Literature Review

4.2.1 Meanings and Nuances of Modal Verbs of Obligation and Necessity

Modal auxiliary verbs have long been the study of L1 and L2 linguistic research, often with discussions focusing on the wide range of possible meanings. In the most general sense, modal verbs are said to represent an interpersonal metafunction, where the writer is expressing a state that is not [yet] real or true and/or the writer's judgment of the state in question. (Halliday 2004:127,146-150; Mitchell 1988: 173-174). The different modals are often categorized by meaning, such as possibility, necessity, obligation, ability, permission, prediction, volition (Thompson 2001:65-66; Biber et al 2002:176-177; Hinkel 2002:108-9; Halliday 2004:618-620). Modal verbs of possibility can have the function of evidentials or hedges (Hyland & Milton 1997; Hyland 1998, 2001, 2002b). Predictive modals also can function as hedges and convey hypothetical and presuppositional meanings (Hinkel 2002:108). A basic list of modal verbs comprises:

Present Tense	***Past Tense***
Can	Could
May	Might
Must	
Shall	Should
Will	would

TABLE 4.1 Modal Verbs (Adapted from Mitchell 1988:174)

In addition to the central modals named above, semi-modals, or periphrastic modals, are multi word constructions which can function like modals, but tend to inflect for person, sometimes carry tense, and can have additional meanings. Basic semi- modals include:

Present Tense	***Past Tense***
Need to	Needed to
Have to	Had to
Ought to	Ought to
	Used to
Got to	
Dare	

TABLE 4.2 Semi- Modal Verbs (Adapted from Sinclair 1990; Biber et al., 1999)

Beyond those basic distinctions, scholars have made arguments that modals have a single core meaning (Perkins 1983), or a number of distinguishable meanings. Some, as in Palmer (1990), for example, delineates *epistemic*, *deontic* and *dynamic* modalities. Some have proposed a far wider range of modal meaning; for example, Sinclair et al (1995) list as many as 14 senses for the modal *must*. Most research suggests two core senses, with gradations of meaning within categories (Coates 1983; Quirk et al 1985; Biber et al 1999). For example, probably the most common distinction between modal meanings was discussed by Coates (1983) who discriminates between *deontic* (root) and *epistemic* modalities. Biber et al (1999) distinguish between *intrinsic* (*personal*) and *extrinsic* (*logical*) modality. They argue that the personal meaning refers to "the actions and events that humans (or other agents) directly control" (1999:485) while logical modal meaning refers to levels of certainty, likelihood, or logical necessity (ibid). These categories correlate to Coates' *deontic* or root (*intrinsic*) and *epistemic* (*extrinsic*) senses. Though Coates herself points out that the distinction between epistemic and deontic meanings are not absolute (1983:13), these categories for distinguishing subtleties of usage of a single modal create a manageable way for researchers to discuss modal use in context.

Modals of obligation and necessity have been specifically discussed in a number of studies (Mitchell 1988, Hinkel 1995, Sinclair 1995, Hyland & Milton 1997, Thompson 2001, Biber et al 1999, Hyland 2002b, Hunston 2004). Biber et al (1999) state that the modals of obligation/necessity are the least used of all the modals (1999:486). They find in their corpus that overall modals are used more in conversation than in academic prose (ibid) , but that the intrinsic meaning is most commonly used in academic prose (ibid:487). They claim that the rarity of *must* in conversation is due to the face-threatening quality *must* can be seen to have; therefore *should* is much more prevalent in face-to-face encounters (ibid). Thompson (2001) and Hyland (2002b) confirm similar claims and discuss use of these modals in professional

academic writing. Both researchers conclude that the modals of obligation/necessity carry the strongest sense of personal commitment and authority and, therefore, Hyland concludes that that is the reason why *must* appears most frequently in textbooks, where authors might be more willing "assert a persona which carries the authority of the more knowledgeable participant" (2002b:228).

As stated above, the modal verbs *must, should, ought to* and semi-modal verbs *has/have to* and *need to* usually express obligation and necessity as in:

> 4a. <…In a dictatorship one person makes all of the decisions and everyone **must** obey…> (gen0053rr)
> 4b. <… it will be hard for you to focus. You **have to** work hard to reach your maximum potential. You **have to** stay energized…> (nss1002rr)

The epistemic meaning of these modals usually refers to certainty, probability, and logical possibility:

> 4c. <…They also said that if mixed marriage exist there **must** be a friendship among the different groups of people…> (gen0057ab)
> 4d. <…if identical twins are like cloning and that's ok with everyone in the world then cloning **should** be ok too…> (gen0003cc)

As mentioned above, categories are not always clear cut, and an obvious difference between epistemic and deontic meanings is not always evident, even in examining the context. For example, the following illustration can be interpreted by the reader as either a recommendation or a deduction:

> 4e. <… **If** what they are selling is the product and not the girl then the words **should** be bigger. In this advertisement …> (gen0013ca)

Here, does the author mean to conclude that the words logically should be larger in order to sell product, or does the author recommend that, in order to be effective, the words need to be larger? The presence of '*if*' in the sentence suggests a condition and therefore a deduction, but it is not entirely clear.

The subtle distinction of meaning can be read differently by different readers and explains why some researchers have argued for more detailed distinctions of modal meanings, or indeed for fewer distinctions but with broader interpretations. Mitchell (1988), for example, suggests that all modal verbs express states that are not real or true and it is only the relationship to REMOTENESS (either time or psychological distance) that determines the meaning. In other words the assertions a writer makes by using modals are not real because they either lie in the future (*It may rain this afternoon*) or because they are the object of speculation and prediction (*She may be French; John must have gone home early*) (1988:174).

Mitchell also considers the deontic and epistemic differences of modal interpretation in a slightly different way than the above researchers. Mitchell argues that the deontic meaning suggests the writer is concerned with the occurrence of an ACT (*You must be quiet*) whereas epistemic modality expresses the writer's concern with estimating the truth of FACTS (*You must be very pleased*) (ibid 178-9). He suggests a matrix of +/- NEC/POSS (necessity vs. possibility) and +/- ACT (act vs. fact) to identify features of a modal utterance in order to determine the range of possibilities of meaning (ibid 180-182). His example (see Table 4.3) gives a visual representation of the eight possibilities of meaning of modal utterances as a

Speaker imposes obligation	+ NEC (+ ACT) I decide it is necessary for you to leave. You must leave	-POSS (-ACT) I decide it is not possible for you not to leave. You can not stay.
Speaker imposes prohibition	+NEC (-ACT) I decide it is necessary for you not to leave. You must not leave.	-POSS (+ACT) I decide it is not possible for you not to leave. You can not leave.
Speaker grants exemption	-NEC (+ACT) I decide it is not necessary for you to leave. You need not leave.	+ POSS (-ACT) I decide it is possible for you not to leave. You can not leave.
Speaker grants permission	-NEC (-ACT) I decide it is not necessary for you not to leave. You need not stay.	+POSS (+ACT) I decided it is possible for you to leave. You can leave.

Table 4.3 Eight basic meanings identified by decision of speaker/writer (Adapted from Mitchell 1988:181)

way to support his argument for more gradations of meaning within a broader context. Mitchell's evaluation presents intriguing possibilities for modal use investigation, but I did find it hard to apply this matrix to some of my data as the writer was not usually the subject of the modal clause and therefore the same interpretations did not apply.

4.2.2 Modal Verbs and Student Writing

The above discussion suggests that use of modals in a piece of writing is an important one for the writer. As nuanced as professional writing may be, students are not always as conscious of their choices and often create ambiguous sentences. NNS writers especially may have difficulty in expressing meaning in a pragmatically appropriate and semantically accurate way when multiple ways of expressing similar meanings are possible. Several researchers (DeCarrico 1986; Altman 1990; Hinkel 1995 & 2002; Hyland & Milton 1997; Thompson 2001; Aijmer 2002; Hyland 2002b) have studied the use of modals by student writers; here I'd like to focus on the studies on L2 learners of English. In their studies, both DeCarrico (1986) and Altman (1990) concluded that NNS's use of modals of obligation and necessity often appeared in contexts where NS would not use them and where NS found their use inappropriate. For example, these researchers suggest that NNS might say something like, '*You <u>should</u> study hard every day*'; this addressed to a classmate may be perceived as offensive or inappropriate to a NS. Hinkel (1995) suggests that this has to do with ESL teaching methods for modals as well as cultural value transfer from the L1.

In her comparison of 450 essays of NS and NNS, Hinkel concludes that the use of modals of obligation/necessity by NNS is almost exclusively limited to the root meaning and that their use in academic writing by both NS and NNS is topic dependent. For example, she concludes that when writing on the topics of friendship and traditions, NNS use of modals of obligation exceeded that of NS, but when discussing racism, NS used these modals where NNS used none (1995:333-336). While Hinkel's results are a starting point, there are some

issues with the study which make an exact comparison to my data improbable. First, her essay prompts for the two groups of students were not the same, though the 'topic' of the prompt was meant to be; this could be problematic for comparing results. Also, her NNS students are advanced ESL students with TOEFL scores of over 580, not 1.5 students. They all had extensive English language instruction.

Aijmer (2002) also studies traditional ESL learners in her investigation and focuses on interlanguage and L1 influence on modal use. Using corpus data to compare NS use with Swedish and French learners of English, she concludes that there is "a global overuse of modal auxiliaries by all L2 writers" (2002:55), and she finds that NNS overuse the root meaning of *must/should/have to* and thereby adopt a rather didactic and emphatic style of persuasion, which may not always be appropriate (ibid:65). She observes that the more subtle epistemic meaning of these modals often eludes student use and her findings seem to support Hinkel (1995). Similarly, Hyland & Milton (1997) noted that L2 writers often have difficulties mastering "the appropriate degree of qualification and confidence in expressing claims [through modal use]" (1997:185). To sum up then, most of the researchers mentioned above (Altman 1990, Hinkel 1995 & 2002, Hyland & Milton 1997, Aijmer 2002, Hyland 2002b) argue the following:

- NNS use modals more frequently than NS do.
- The topic of the writing can influence the kind/number/distribution of modals used by NNS and NS speakers.
- NNS tend to use root meanings of modals almost exclusively.
- Where they use epistemic meanings, NNS tend to use them unsuitably.

By looking at frequency and function of modal use in my data, I will compare these results with my findings.

4.3 Criteria for Analysis

In ESL grammar texts, the meanings and functions of modal verbs are often divided into three general classes:

Modal Function	Modal
Possibility, Permission, Ability	can, may, might, could, be able to
Obligation, Necessity	must, should, ought, has/have to, need
Prediction, Volition	would

TABLE 4.4 Meanings and functions of modal verbs (Biber et al 1999:485-496; Halliday 2004:618-620)

ESL students have had, in general, extensive practice in basic modal use (Please refer to Module I for characteristics of ESL, 1.5, and NS educational differences). As we have seen above, however, the nuances of modal use are often difficult to explain and can be problematic for L2 learners. Potentially more problematic is the lack of instruction that 1.5 and NS students receive on modal use. NS students in the U.S. get very little grammar instruction in school after about the 6th grade (ages 11-12), and no instruction specifically on modal verbs; since 1.5 students are taught in NS classes, they too have not received formal instruction on modal auxiliaries. While NS seem to acquire an intuitive competency in using modals, they often are not conscious of how or why they may choose a particular rhetorical element. In informal interviews, I asked NS and 1.5 students about modal verbs and none of the students I asked could tell me what a modal was, how it functioned, or any related information. ESL students, on the other hand, who had received formal English language training, could tell me something about the form and function of modal auxiliaries.

Like the lack of instruction on first person pronoun use in academic writing, lack of modal instruction can be problematic for 1.5 students. Therefore, in this chapter, the following questions are driving the research:

1. Is there variation in the frequency of use of each of the modal auxiliaries of obligation/necessity [*must, should, ought to*] and semi-modal verbs [e.g. *has/have to, need(s) (to)*] among 1.5, ESL, and NS writers?

2. Are there differences in the way these modals are used by the 1.5 writers vs. NS writers?

3. Are some functions of these modals typically performed in certain environments or in certain kinds of rhetorical situations?

4. To what extent do 1.5 writers demonstrate a pragmatic competence in their use of these modals?

In order to address these questions, I will first look at frequency data as compiled by *WordSmith Tools* and compare the results of my corpus data with what other researchers had found about the frequency of use of modals of necessity and obligation in academic texts. After addressing frequency, I will also consider the literature on modal meaning and, by examining specific examples from the data, evaluate the meanings and environments in which the modals appear.

4.4 Modals Verbs of Obligation and Necessity: *Must, Should, Ought to*

4.4.1 Frequency

In an attempt to confirm the research data and to look specifically at modals of obligation, I first examine frequency data in my three corpora as collated by *WordSmith Tools*. In their study, Hyland & Milton (1997:189) ranked the 10 most frequent items expressing epistemic modality in the NNS and NS corpora; these items included modals, semi-modals and modal expressions, such as verbs and adverbs. Though I am narrowing my research here to focus only on *must, should, ought to, need*, and *have to* and determining epistemic and deontic use, I first ran a similar list with interesting results (see Table 4.5). Checking the frequency of the same elements as did Hyland and Milton (1997), the results of the ranking demonstrate that *would, can, will* are by far the most frequent modals in all three corpora. After the top three, the frequency numbers change radically as do the order of specific items. Unlike the above studies which indicated that modals are more frequent in

	1.5		ESL		NS	
Rank	**Item**	**% of tokens**	**Item**	**% of tokens**	**Item**	**% of tokens**
1	Would	.38%	Would	.38%	Would	.33%
2	Can	.35%	Can	.26%	Will	.33%
3	Will	.21%	Will	.25%	Can	.30%
4	Need(s) to	.12%	Could	.16%	May	.15%
5	Has/have to	.10%	Think	.11%	Could	.14%
6	Could	.10%	Know	.10%	Should	.14%
7	Think	.08%	Should	.09%	Need(s) to	.13%
8	Know	.08%	Always Need(s) to	.08% .08%	Has/have to	.11%
9	Should Always	.07% .07%	Believe	.085%	Feel	.10%
10	Usually	.06%	Feel	.08%	Always	.09%

TABLE 4.5 Most frequent items expressing modality in rank order

writing of NNS, Table 4.5 suggests that in this data, NS prefer modal use to the semi-modals or adverbial expressions identified by Hyland & Milton in their study. This interpretation is misleading however, because while the ranking suggests more frequent use, the percentage of appearances of several items is not significantly different among the speaker groups. Moreover, it would appear that 1.5 writers use the more confident semi-modals *need(s) to, has/have to* somewhat more often than NS, but *should* appears less often. ESL writers seem less likely to use *has/have to*, but use *should* more frequently than 1.5 writers. Interesting to note is that certain expressions which ranked quite high in the rankings done by Hyland & Milton (1997:189), like *in fact, probably, indeed, certainly, seem* appeared in such small numbers in these three corpora that they did not rank at all, while others, like *need to, have to, could, can, should* do not appear in Hyland's & Milton's (1997:187) ranking at all, though it is not clear if they searched these items for their study.

If we eliminate the modal expressions that are no modal verbs from the ranking, we get a somewhat different picture of the modal choices of the three speaker groups:

	1.5		ESL		NS	
Rank	**Item**	**% of tokens**	**Item**	**% of tokens**	**Item**	**% of tokens**
1	Would	.38%	Would	.38%	Would	.33%
2	Can	.35%	Can	.26%	Will	.33%
3	Will	.21%	Will	.25%	Can	.30%
4	Need(s) to	.12%	Could	.16%	May	.15%
5	Has/have to	.10%	Should	.09%	Could	.14%
6	Could	.10%	Need(s) to	.08%	Should	.14%
7	Should	.07%	Might	.07%	Need(s) to	.13%
8	Might	.05%	Has/Have to	.06%	Has/have to	.11%
9	May	.04%	May	.03%	Must	.07%
10	Must	.01%	Must	.02%	Might	.03%

TABLE 4.6 Most frequent modals/semi-modals in rank order

Overall, there is not a great deal of difference in the frequency of the modals among the three groups. However, there are areas which suggest significant differences between the 1.5 writers' usage and the NS usage. For example, NS use *may* significantly more often than the 1.5 writers, and use *should* about twice as often as the 1.5 writers proportionally, though the ranking of that modal is similar. Equally interesting are the commonalities between the 1.5 and NS writers and where they differ from the ESL writers. For example, though ranked differently, both the 1.5 and NS writers use *need to* and *have to* with approximately the same frequency (.10-.13%), which is more frequent than ESL usage (.06-.08%). Similarly, the 1.5 and ESL writers share some common usage of features such as the infrequent use of *may* and *must* (.01-.04%).

If we focus more closely at the numbers for the modals of necessity (see Table 4.7), we see that 1.5 writers have similarities with both ESL and NS writers again. In terms of percentages, 1.5 and ESL writers seem to use *ought to, must*, and *should* with similar frequency. *Ought to* especially stands out for its absence in the data. It does appear, albeit rarely, in the NS data; this contradicts Hinkel's (1995) conclusion where she states that

	1.5 **87,105 tokens** **94 texts**	**ESL** **71,050 tokens** **90 texts**	**NS** **185,642 tokens** **183 texts**
Modal/ Semi-Modal	**# Occurrences in # Texts**	**# Occurrences in # Texts**	**# Occurrences in # Texts**
Must	13 occurrences in 13 texts	17 occurrences in 11 texts	141 occurrences in 65 texts
Should	59 occurrences in 34 texts	63 occurrences in 34 texts	262 occurrences in 85 texts
Ought to	0 occurrences	0 occurrences	7 occurrences in 3 texts
Has/Have to	96 occurrences in 33 texts	46 occurrences in 25 texts	196 occurrences in 161 texts
Need(s) to	111 occurrences in 26 texts	61 occurrences in 35 texts	246 occurrences in 117 texts

TABLE 4.7 Frequency rates for modals of obligation/necessity in three corpora

NS do not use *ought to* in their writing, but NNS overused this modal:

> Because the data for the study were obtained from NS and NNS essays, the absence of *ought to* in the NS sample is not particularly surprising. ESL texts rarely mention that *ought to* has become somewhat outdated and is not commonly used in writing. Thus, the NNS overuse of *ought to* in writing can be induced by ESL training. (1995:336)

Her conclusion is in complete opposition to the data in my corpora where the only group to have received ESL modal training did not use the modal at all.

For all three speaker groups, *must* appears to be the next most infrequent of this modal category, though it still appears in about a third of the NS texts. The most surprising difference is in looking at the frequency numbers for *has/have t*o and *need (s)*. Here, the percentage of tokens for both of these semi-modals for the 1.5 speakers and NS are similar; however, the number of texts in which these items appear is much larger in the NS corpus, and very similar in the 1.5 and ESL corpora. Overall, the use of this group of modals, particularly *should, have to, need*, appears in roughly a third of all texts, sometimes more. Though the literature claims that NNS use these modals more frequently than NS, the results from this study suggests that all these student writers are using these modals to a significant degree.

4.4.2 Function: Meaning and Environments

This section will examine the function of the modals by determining the meaning in context; I will try to illustrate that modal cannot be studied in isolation, but the clues to the nuances of possible meanings are held in the surrounding lexical environments in which the modals appear. As discussed in section 4.2.1, modal auxiliaries are typically thought to carry two senses, the deontic (root) and epistemic meanings. Hunston (2004) goes beyond the idea of two senses and looks at the environments in which modals can occur and suggests that patterns of modals appearing with other lexical items can suggest the context of the modal phrase. Hunston argues that there is a link between modal meaning and phraseology (2004:13) which she illustrates with examples such as those that appear in Table 4.8.

Type of Use	**Sequence**	**Example**	**Meaning of modal**
Root	*Must be* + past participle	*… a great deal of care must be taken…*	Recommendation
	Must be true ***to***	*Women in the workforce must be true to themselves*	Recommendation
	We *must be aware of/that*	*At this point we must be aware of the limitations…*	Recommendation
Epistemic	*Must be* +'ing' form	*…most people must be living on stocks of food and water…*	Deduction
	Must be true	*Some say that astrology must be true because…*	Deduction
	You *must be aware of/that*	*Deep down you must be aware that if your life is going to get better…*	Deduction

TABLE 4.8 Meaning by pattern of *Must* (Adapted from Hunston 2004: Tables 3 & 5)

In examining the meaning of the modals *must* and *should* in the collected 1.5 data as well as the NS data, the environments in which the modals appeared seemed to be significant in predicting the meaning/use of the modal, and appeared to be used almost identically by both speaker groups. A summary of the type of use and environment in the student data appears in Table 4.9. As suggested by the researchers discussed in section 4.2.2, most uses of *must* and *should* were in the root sense of obligation and necessity, though not

exclusively. The NS used *must* to a much higher percentage than the 1.5 writers; this higher frequency rate of *must* in the NS corpus contradicts previous literature.

Type of Use	***Must***	***Should***
Root –obligation, necessity,	*Must* + verb	*Should* + verb
intention, advice	*Must* + be + adjective	*Should* + be + adjective*
	Must + be + past participle	*Should* + be + past participle*[20]
	Must + be + preposition	*Should* + be + preposition
		Should + be + 0
Epistemic – logical necessity,	*Must* + be + noun	*Should* + be + noun*[21]
deduction	*Must* + be + present participle	*Should* + be + present participle

TABLE 4.9 Meanings and patterns of *Must* & *Should* in 1.5 and NS data

More extensive examples of usage from the corpora appear in Appendix E; some representative samples include:

> Deontic/Root Meaning – *must* + verb
> 4f. <…In order to do this you **must take** as many eggs as needed and put them into a bottle or jar then you mix…> (gen0028de)
> 4g. <…the status of a woman as a human person. This dehumanization **must cease** very soon…> (nss1034ca)
>
> Epistemic/Logical Necessity/Deduction- *must* + *be* + noun
> 4h. <…They also said that **if** mixed marriage exist there **must be a friendship** among the different groups of people…> (gen0050rr)
> 4i. <…similarities mean that the common factor between the two men, their genes, **must be the cause**—…> (nss1089rp)

In terms of genre use, these modals appeared in essays from all the varying prompts – research, reader response, etc. This data suggests a correlation between modal use and patterned meaning.

Hyland (2002b) notes that in his study students used *must* infrequently, almost always in a passive form (*must* + be + past participle) and "almost entirely restricted to procedural explanations" (2002b:229). In my data, 1.5 writers never used *must* + be + past participle, and NS writers used the passive structure 16 times (11.4% of occurrences),both considerably less

[20] There are several instances where the item following the *modal + be +* pattern could be tagged as an adjective or past participle. Here, I am distinguishing between adjective and past participle as follows: the item is determined to be an adjective and not a passive voice past participle if the item can take adverb modification and/or can take a negative adjective prefix, e.g. *un-* (Mitchell 1988:174, Hunston 2006, personal communication).

[21] The meaning of these patterns are sometimes questionable (see section 4.2.1)and will be discussed in detail later.

frequently than the *must* + verb (38% and 64% of occurrences respectively). Most examples of the passive use involved advice-giving. Procedural explanations appeared in the *must* + verb form:

> Must + be + past participle: Advice, suggestion –
> 4j. <… react differently from one another so all the experiments done on animals **must be done over** on man to be proven safe…> (nss1062ab)
>
> *Must* + verb: Necessary part of procedure -
> 4k. <…. The egg yolks in a moon cake have to be salted. In order to do this you **must take** as many eggs as needed and put them into a bottle or jar then you mix …> (gen0028de)

A possible explanation for the differences between my data results and Hyland's (2002b) could be the demographic differences in the writer groups and/or the writing prompts; Hyland's students were advanced ESL writers from Hong Kong producing final research projects (2002b:220-221) whereas my participants were all inexperienced (freshmen) writers and from multiple L1 groups. Their tasks also varied as the 1.5 and NS students in my study did not produce only research reports.

While researchers (Altman 1990, Hinkel 1995 & 2002, Hyland & Milton 1997, Aijmer 2002, Hyland 2002b) overall agreed that most modals are used by NNS primarily in the deontic sense, almost half of the occurrences of *must* in the 1.5 data (46%/6 occurrences), appear in the form of *must* + be + noun and are used in an epistemic sense. Granted, six occurrences are not many, but percentage-wise, this disputes the existing research on low occurrence of modal use in epistemic meanings, and therefore requires further scrutiny. Examples include:

> 4l. <… Therefore, **I figure it out** that it **must be a food** that my mother used to make for my family when we gather at my home…> (gen0027de)
>
> 4m. <… They also said that **if** mixed marriage exist there **must be a friendship** among the different groups of people who never been together...> (gen0057ab>
>
> 4n. <…**Since we all known** that **if** the people don't understand themselves **then** there **must be a problems** with the communication…> (gen0076rp>

The lexical context around the modal pattern (see bolded items in examples) set up the modal for the deduction meaning; so, as Hunston (2004) suggests, we cannot look at the modal in

isolation. This is borne out by the use of *must* + be + noun which appears in a much smaller percentage in the NS corpus (8.3% of occurrences/12 total occurrences). There, it also carries the epistemic meaning of deduction, but the lexical content surrounding it does not create as obvious or succinct a logical deduction as is used by the 1.5 writers (see examples 4l-4n):

> 4o. <… you should not talk to your friends the same way you would talk to a person of a higher status. There **must be more respect** shown to the upper classes then any of the others…> (nss1010rr)
>
> 4p. <… in the backs of our minds, we **see** these ads **and think…** He or she wears these jeans **so** they **must be the best** or if I drink this I will get a gorgeous guy or girl…> (nss1036ca)

Example 4o is somewhat ambiguous and could be interpreted as the root meaning of *must:* it is necessary to show respect to the upper classes. However, if you examine the content that comes just before the modal expression, as well as take a look at the overall structure of this student's essay, the order of sentences here can lead the reader to deduce that, because of various behaviors, one would be showing respect. The obvious lexical items leading up to deduction are not here. Example 4p does use the lexical cue *so* and tries to set up the deduction with *and think…*making this example closer to the 1.5 writers' usage as seen in examples 4l-n, though still somewhat more subtle than the 1.5 examples illustrate. A possible reason for this difference in environment in the two corpora could be due to the strength of certainty usually attributed to the use the *must*. The NS writers might be trying to downplay this explicit force by weakening the environment, whereas the 1.5 students might not choose to do so or be unaware of the nuance. Like the use of first person pronouns, the clear insertion of the writer into the text makes a strong claim which may or may not be intended by inexperienced writers. Clearly more investigation is required.

Because of the explicit strength of *must*, it is often replaced by *should* (Coates 1983; Quirk et al 1985; Biber et al 1999; Hyland 2002b), which expresses a sense of advisability rather than a requirement. This is born out in the comparison of the frequency of occurrences

of the two modals in all three corpora (see Table 4.5). The patterns in which *should* appears along with the associated deontic and epistemic meanings seem to parallel the usage of *must* in the 1.5 and NS corpora with few differences. In the 1.5 corpus, *must* appears in only three environments: *must* + be + noun, *must* + verb, *must* + be + adjective. In the 1.5 corpus, *should* appears in those environments as well as in the following: *should* + be + 0, and *should* + preposition. In the NS corpus, *should* appears in the additional environments of *should* + be + present participle and *should* + be + past participle. Whereas the greatest environment for *must* in the 1.5 corpus was with *must* + be + noun (46% of occurrences) with epistemic meaning, the greatest occurrences of *should* are with *should* + verb (50% of occurrences) with deontic meaning. Examples include:

> 4q. <… One of the things that he stated that still apply today is, you **should look** at the person that you are talking to in the eyes…> (gen0001rr)
>
> 4r. <…People **should choose** how to raise the family by the best way possible and to the best of their ability…> (gen0040rr)

This was also the primary environment for NS writers (68% of occurrences).

As mentioned above, the environments similar to *must* where *should* appears seem to correlate with same the root or epistemic senses. There are some exceptions here where the patterns might not indicate consistent meaning within, and compared to, the corpora. For example, please refer back to section 4.2.1 for examples of ambiguous uses. Also, when we look at the pattern of *should* + be + noun in both the 1.5 and NS data, it is not always clear that the meaning is epistemic as it was with this pattern using *must*. In the 1.5 *should* data, this pattern only appears six times; three instances appear to a have deontic meaning and three an epistemic meaning. Examples include:

> Deontic
> 4r. <… Since that time all members of my family knew that there **should be something** sweet in the house. If my dad wanted to have something sweet…> (gen0029de)
>
> 4s. <… Once you have the dough ready, you would need to divide it into two parts one **should be a little bit bigger** then the other…> (gen0035de)

Epistemic

4t. <…Having both spouses fighting for superiority can lead into a divorce. It **should not be a surprise**, **since** over 16%1 of the families are headed by a single parent…> (gen0053rr)

4u. <…The most important thing in choosing a partner **should be true love**, **isn't it**? **According to** Martin Luther King, Jr…> (gen0080rp)

In the above examples, 4r seems to obviously mean necessity; example 4s is less clear as to the author's intent and could represent an error in choosing the modal *should*. It should also be noted that both examples were written by the same student and were from descriptive essays. This could account for a particular usage by a particular student. The examples described as epistemic were written by different students and were either reader response essays or research projects. They more clearly mirror the environment and pattern of *must*. Similarly, this ambiguity appears in the NS corpus as well. *Should* + be + noun appears 13 times in the NS corpus (4.8% of occurrences), not always with clear intent:

Deontic

4v. <…Second, there **should be absolutely no bean paste** of any kind…> (nss1110de)

4w. <…Get the job done, that **should be the mindset** of every worker…> (nss1009rr)

Epistemic

4x. <…Chesterfield requirements **compared** to yours **should show a significant difference**, **if** not you probably **should not be here**…> (nss1006rr)

4y. <…**So** one must, or at least **should, show grace**…> (nss1016rr)

The root meaning uses illustrated here from the NS corpus were not written by a single student or come from a single essay type yet do include the context clues leading to a logical deduction as do the later examples. If we look at other lexical items in the root meaning examples, we see *should* appearing with the booster *absolutely* (4v) and with the command *Get* (4w), both indicating a strong stance by the writer, not typical of the meaning of *should*. It is interesting to note that, in those two examples, it appears as if the writer wants to make very strong statements – no bean paste must be used and every worker must get the job done. However, rather than use the more face threatening *must*, the writer chose *should* + additional

context. DeCarrico (1986) and Altman (1990) both suggest that NS generally will not use the stronger modal and perceive such force of expression to be offensive or inappropriate. Therefore, it is interesting to note here that the student followed a grammatical pattern for meaning and added context to perhaps soften the intended meaning on the reader. It would seem then that any theory of patterned meaning with this modal in these student corpora needs further investigation.

Ought to is the third modal in this group and as mentioned in section 4.4.1 does not appear at all in the 1.5 corpus; therefore I will not discuss it in detail. There are only seven occurrences in the NS corpus and four of these occurrences pair *ought* with *no*t:

> 4z. <… Humans are always aware of what they **ought** and **ought not** do…> (nss1086rp>
>
> 4A. <…For example, a man may know that he **"ought not"** steal an apple, being that he is taking from the vendor…> (nss1086rp)

It appears as if this is a stylistic choice by the students in order to achieve a particular voice in the essay. The fact that the student chose to put quotation marks around the phrase in 4A suggests that the choice of *ought not* is an unusual one for the student and would not be a standard choice. This too warrants further investigation.

While Hunston's (2004) theory of patterned meaning with modal use seems to be supported by this data, there are also many unanswered questions. The different use among the learner groups here raises questions about the students' intended level of writer presence in the texts and suggests that much more research is needed.

4.5 Semi- Modals: *Need/Has & Have to*

4.5.1 Frequency

The frequency with which *need* and *has/have to* appeared in the corpus data is discussed extensively in section 4.4.1 as it seemed most appropriate to chart the rates of usage of all relevant features together. To highlight the findings for the relevant semi-

modals, it appeared from the data that among all three learner groups, *need* and *has/have to* appeared far more frequently than the modals themselves, with 1.5 and NS speakers showing similar frequency of usage. A reiteration of the data from section 4.4.1 pertaining to *need* and *has/have to* appears in Table 4.10.

		NEED				**HAS/HAVE TO**	
	# of occurrences	= % of tokens	in # of texts		# of occurrences	= % of tokens	in # of texts
1.5	111	.12%	26		96	.10%	33
ESL	61	.08%	35		46	.063%	25
NS	246	.13%	117		196	.10%	161

TABLE 4.10 Frequency rates for semi-modals – *need* and *has/have to* in three corpora

4.5.2 Function: Meaning and Environments

Butler (1990:162) suggests discussing *need* and *has/have to* with *must* as it is the equivalent of *must* in the root (obligation) sense. Except for instances where the form/meanings did not correspond to the modal meanings, this behavior of the semi- modals is confirmed in my data. The patterns for both semi-modal was semi-modal + verb and consistent in meaning throughout the corpora. Typical examples include:

4B. <...The egg yolks in a moon cake **have to be salted**…> (gen0034de)

4C. <…The movie Master and Commanders. I **have to watch** the movie again and find what part I'm going to use my information…> (gen0007ab)

4D. <…The line **has to be drawn** before this happens…> (nss1057cc)

4E. <…People **need to have** an open mind and embrace the changes that this country needs to further develop in the future…> (0077rp>

4F. <…Parents **need to notice** the fine line between the traditional and the modern family values…> (gen0053rr)

4G. <…These Irish immigrants still **needed to find** work…> (nss1155rp)

These forms appear in all essay types and with similar meaning across the corpora.

There were a few instances where *need* appeared in the NS texts as a noun and several instances in the 1.5 corpus where *has/have to do with* appears and is not meant in the sense of necessity:

> 4H. <…What do the rest of the things in the advertisement **have to do with** the product?> (gen0013ca)
> 4I. <…It **has to do more with** parenting that picking out family style…..> (gen0053rr)

This structure did not appear at all in the NS corpus.

What we can conclude from this small report is that 1.5 students often exhibit similar uses of these modals to NS and some similarities to the ESL writers as well. There appears to be patterns to the lexical environments in which the modals/semi-modals appear and the meaning of the phrase can usually be determined from the patterns. There are of course exceptions to this and these suggest that more data needs to be collected and examined.

4.6 Conclusions and Recommendations

4.6.1 Conclusions

Frequency analysis indicated that modals and semi-modals of necessity and obligation did not necessarily occur as suggested by previous researchers. While others argue that NNS use these modals abundantly more than NS writers, evidence from my corpus indicates that closer investigation of the population of nonnative speakers (i.e. 1.5 vs. ESL students) indicates different usage among different populations of learners. There are some parallels to the previous research in terms of the functions and environments in which the modals appear. While it seems that for the most part 1.5 and NS writers tend to use the modals in the same way, there is some stylistic variability between the two corpora in the epistemic use of the modals which needs to be further investigated.

4.6.2 Recommendations

There are clearly areas where more investigation needs to be done to extend this pilot study and be able to garner some firm conclusions about the use of these modals by 1.5

student writers. As 1.5 and NS students essentially receive no modal training prior to university composition classes, where and why there are differences in use warrants further study. Additionally, since this was such a small study, many variables were not examined and need to be considered in further work. For example, comparison with the use of these modals by the ESL students was only marginally considered, other modals were not part of this study, and the use of multiple modals in one verb phrase or models with negatives showed some interesting patterns. A complete investigation of 1.5 writer use of these and other modals illustrating patterned meaning would have important implications for helping these students become successful college writers.

CHAPTER 5:
CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Conclusions

5.1.1 General Conclusions

While there is plenty of current research examining differences between NS and NNS students, very little identifies differences among the NNS population and even fewer consider the population of Generation 1.5 learners. As we have seen from this small study, many of the results of the research on NNS students do not apply to this population of students. For example, Hinkel (2005) argues that modals of necessity and obligation are used far more frequently by NNS students; however, our data indicates that 1.5 students used these modals less often than NS students. Generation 1.5 students often exhibit linguistic behaviors not typical of NNS speakers, but they do not produce academic writing with native-like proficiency either. Their academic background, which comes from attendance primarily in U.S. schools, provided them with far less formal English language training than traditional ESL students who study in EAP programs abroad. This sometimes results in their linguistic choices mirroring NS students, while in other instances, their linguistic behaviors are similar to those of ESL students. This conclusion suggests the existing research on NNS students may or may not be relevant to this growing population of learners.

5.1.2 Personal Conclusions

Finishing this Module has left me with more questions than answers and has convinced me that of the importance of identifying the different needs of these 1.5 students in order to help them succeed at the university and beyond. It is clear after this pilot study that there are not three neat categories into which we can place our students; 1.5 students' results did not neatly correlate with the results of either the ESL or NS groups, suggesting that

neither traditional ESL no NS teaching methods serve their needs completely and perhaps even leave them behind.

This corpus study also has taught me valuable lessons about doing research in general. As suspected, the data suggests that intuition may be good starting point, but is not always accurate. Frequency findings are also extremely useful starting points, but the most useful data comes from a close examination of the documents themselves and the linguistic items in question. For example, though the keyword list data on the modals I examined here suggested interesting possibilities, the results were somewhat disappointing and further investigation of that topic needs to be thought through.

5.2 Implications and Plans for Future Research

5.2.1 Implications

The implications of this conclusion are enormous. If we have a growing population of speakers/learners who fit neither NNS nor NS category exclusively, then much more research is needed in order to differentiate these students and their needs from the traditional categories in which we work. This small pilot study suggests that there is much more work to be done in identifying the linguistic differences among the 1.5 learners, ESL and NS students; determining what influences (i.e. L1, aural learning) might be contributing to these differences; and developing techniques to help these students succeed academically.

5.2.2 Plans for Future Research

In Module III, I hope to expand this study to include larger amounts of data from all three learner groups and to look more thoroughly at linguistic differences in their writing. Specifically, I hope to be considering the following in Module III:

- A closer comparison of data from all three corpora, including more detail from the ESL corpus
- Further examination of issues of writer identity and stance

- A detailed study of relevant features, including hedges, boosters, impersonal constructions, *that* clauses, adverbs, etc.

- An examination of the kinds of changes that occur regarding these features in the revision/redrafting process

- Implications and suggestions for teaching

At the end of Module III, I am hoping to have a more concrete understanding of just what the differences are of the 1.5 students, what makes them unique as English learners and what strategies we might employ to help them succeed.

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APPENDIX A:
INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH
The Pennsylvania State University

ORP USE ONLY: IRB# 20098
The Pennsylvania State University
Office for Research Protections

Approval Date: 01/31/05 M. Becker

Expiration Date: 01/24/06 M. Becker

Social Science Institutional Review Board

Title of Project: A Study of Learner Differences: Writing Variation among ESL Students: 1.5 generation students vs. international students in US universities
(IRB #20098)

Principal Investigator: Mary Connerty, Lecturer (and PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics, Birmingham)
144 Kochel Bldg
Penn State Erie, The Behrend College
Erie, PA 16563

Advisor: Dr. Susan Hunston
CELS
University of Birmingham
Edgbaston
Birmingham B15 2TT
United Kingdom

1. **Purpose of the Study:** As part of a requirement to complete my PhD, I am conducting research. The purpose of this research is to examine the essay writing of ESL students and determine if there are differences in language and discourse acquisition between students who have been in the US for some time and have spent time in US schools versus international students who are in the US only for college. These essays will be compared to a control group of native speakers of English.

2. **Procedures to be followed:** You will be asked to answer a brief survey and submit your essays written for ESL 015, ENGL 015, or ENGL 30 via email or computer disk.

3. **Discomforts and Risks:** Though a participant might feel some discomfort knowing that someone other than his/her instructor is reading his/her essays, I would like to assure the participant that all information will be confidential and no names will appear in any written analysis of the data. Raw data will be seen only by the researcher, Mary Connerty, and Dr. Susan Hunston.

   There are no risks in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life.

4. **Benefits:** This research hopefully will provide linguists and teachers of writing with clearer information about how different groups of students acquire language, utilize discourse

elements, and understand reading and writing assignments. The research will also hopefully result in giving insight into developing better and more efficient learning tools and materials for ESL students.

While the study is not designed to provide participants with any direct benefits, you might learn more about your writing and reading process by participating in this study. Awareness of your own process might also provide you with a better understanding of how you personally have learned, are continuing to learn, and improve your mastery of English.

5. **Duration/Time:** The survey will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. The essays you will submit in electronic format are the same essays you will be writing as class assignments; therefore no additional time is required for preparing the essays; the only additional time required would be the time it takes to email a copy of your essay or to drop it into an ANGEL dropbox.

   Statement of Confidentiality: Only the person in charge and her academic advisor will know your identity. The data will be stored and secured at 144Kochel Building in a password protected electronic file and a locked file cabinet. However, since the study does make use of email, your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The Office of for Research Protections and the Social Science Institutional Review Board may review records related to this project. In the event of a publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared.

6. **Right to Ask Questions:** You can ask questions about this research. Contact Mary Connerty with questions. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact The Pennsylvania State University's Office for Research Protections at (814) 865-1775.

7. **Compensation:** There will be no compensation for participation in this research.

8. **Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. Participation or non-participation in the study will have no effect on grades or status with your instructor or the university.

You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to take part in this research study. If you agree to take part in this research study and the information outlined above, please sign your name and indicate the date below.

You will be given a copy of this signed and dated consent form for your records.

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

_____ _____

Person Obtaining Consent Date

APPENDIX B: 1.5/ESL STUDENT SURVEY

ESL/NSS Survey (IRB # 20098)

This survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete; please answer questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Because participation in this research is voluntary, you may stop at any time. The information from this survey will be used for PhD research examining the writing skills of ESL, EFL, and native English-speaking students at U.S. universities. Any identifying information obtained from this survey will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher, Mary Connerty and Professor Susan Hunston at the University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England, U.K. You may contact Mary Connerty at any time regarding questions about this survey or the research.

Part I: General information

37. Name: _____
38. Age: _____
39. Gender: F_____ M_____
40. Nationality: _____
41. Country of Birth: _____
42. Native Language: _____
43. Other languages spoken: _____
44. Length of time in the US: _____
45. Language(s) spoken in the home _____

Part II: Education and Future Plans

46. Did you attend high school in the U.S.? Yes_____ No_____
47. If yes, at what grade level did you first attend school in the US? _____
48. If yes, at what age did you first attend school in the US? _____
49. Are you an international student studying in the US on a student visa? Yes _____ No _____
50. How long do you plan on staying in the US? _____
51. What is your academic major or major course of study? _____
52. What is your semester standing? (1st semester, 3rd semester, etc.) _____
53. Do you plan on attending graduate school after college? Yes_____ No_____
    a. If yes, in what field? _____
    b. Where? _____
54. What profession do you wish to pursue? _____
55. In what country do you wish to work? _____

Part III: English Language Training

56. Did you study English formally (in school/classes) before coming to the US? Yes____ No____

57. If yes, for how many years? _____

58. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe the kinds of instruction you had:

    Writing _____ Grammar _____

    Speaking _____ Listening _____

    Reading _____ Other (please explain) _____

59. Did you have informal exposure to English (e.g. TV, movies, internet) before coming to the US?

    Yes____ No____

60. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe your exposure to English:

    TV _____ Music _____

    Movies _____ Internet _____

    Other (please describe) _____

61. If yes, for how years? _____

62. Did you take the TOEFL or ILETS test? Yes____ No____

63. If yes, what was your score? _____

64. If you studied in a US grade school, middle school, and/or high school, were you given English language (ESL) classes? Yes____ No____

65. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe the kinds of instruction you had:

    Writing _____ Grammar _____

    Speaking _____ Listening _____

    Reading _____ Other (please explain) _____

66. If yes, how long did you take English language (ESL) classes? _____

67. If you studied in a US grade school, middle school, and/or high school, did you take classes with native speakers of English? Yes____ No____

Part IV: Writing Experience

68. Have you written essays and/or research papers in a language other than English?

    Yes____ No____

69. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete. (e.g. a lab report for a biology experiment, a 5-page research paper for history class about an event in your country's history, a 2-page reaction paper to a piece of literature, etc.)

    _____

    _____

    _____

70. Have you written essays or research papers in English before taking this class? Yes____ No____
71. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete (e.g. an 3-page essay about a Shakespeare play, a 5-page research paper for history class on the Industrial Revolution, a 3-page paper about my family history for sociology class, a lab report for a biology experiment, etc.)

    _____

    _____

    _____

72. What do you perceive to be your strengths when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

    Vocabulary_____ Grammar _____

    Organization_____ Content/Ideas_____

    Punctuation_____ Other (please explain)_____

73. What do you perceive to be your weaknesses when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

    Vocabulary_____ Grammar _____

    Organization_____ Content/Ideas_____

    Punctuation_____ Other (please explain)_____

Thank you for your help with this survey!

APPENDIX C: NATIVE SPEAKER SURVEY

Native Speaker Student Survey (IRB # 20098)

This survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete; please answer questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Because participation in this research is voluntary, you may stop at any time. The information from this survey will be used for PhD research examining the writing skills of ESL, EFL, and native English-speaking students at U.S. universities. Any identifying information obtained from this survey will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher, Mary Connerty and Professor Susan Hunston at the University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England, U.K. You may contact Mary Connerty at any time regarding questions about this survey or the research.

Part I: General information

74. Name: _____
75. Age: _____
76. Gender: F_____ M_____
77. Where were you born? _____
78. Where is your legal residence? _____
79. Languages other than English spoken: _____

Part II: Education and Future Plans

80. Did you attend high school in the U.S.? Yes_____ No_____
81. What is your academic major or major course of study? _____
82. What is your semester standing? (1st semester, 3rd semester, etc.) _____
83. Do you plan on attending graduate school after college? _____
    a. If yes, in what field? _____
    b. Where? _____
84. What profession do you wish to pursue? _____
85. In what country do you wish to work? _____

Part III: English Language Training

86. Have you taken any classes on analyzing the English language, such as a class on grammar or style? By this, I mean did you have a class that focused on English language exclusively, not as part of a literature class. Yes_____ No_____
87. Did you have any classes that taught writing? Yes_____ No_____
88. Was your writing instruction part of another class, like literature? Yes_____ No_____
89. If yes, in what grade(s) did you take these classes? _____
90. Were your English classes primarily literature classes? Yes_____ No_____

91. If yes, please list some of the reading you did? (Please list authors, books, poems, etc. that your particularly enjoyed)_____
_____

Part IV: Writing Experience

92. Have you written essays and/or research papers before taking this class? Yes_____ No_____
93. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete. (e.g. a lab report for a biology experiment, a 5-page research paper for history class about an event in your country's history, a 2-page reaction paper to a piece of literature, etc.)
_____
_____
_____

94. What do you perceive to be your strengths when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____	Grammar _____
Organization_____	Content/Ideas_____
Punctuation_____	Other (please explain)_____

95. What do you perceive to be your weaknesses when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____	Grammar _____
Organization_____	Content/Ideas_____
Punctuation_____	Other (please explain)_____

Thank you for your help with this survey!

APPENDIX D:
EXAMPLES OF *I, ME, MY* AND *WE, US, OUR* USE FROM STUDENT CORPORA

Category of *I/We*	Samples/Examples from Student Corpora
***I/We* as representative**	<…on the wedding day. It is like the cultural dessert to **me** and the rest of **my** community. **We** enjoy it together like the "communion" ..> (gen0014de> <…What Chesterfield believes may not be what **I** or the next person believes...> (nss1026rr) <…The human race needs to see, that **we** might have evolved from animals at one period of time and that **we** evolved into something that adapted…> (gen0009rp) <… Every single one of **us** is unique in living in this world. My question is; can clones also have copy..> (esl0501rr) <…**We** as human beings use qualities in many different things that **we** do over the course of **our** lives…> (nss1008rr)
***I/We* as guide**	<…Therefore **I** can make **my** own essay stronger by using Faynzilbert's idea to back up **my** idea..> (gen0064ab) <…**I** will also use a quote that will support **my** thesis…> (gen0006ab) <…In **my** resource paper **I** will address these issues and help people understand that vivisection done on humans or animals is very wrong…> (esl0507ab) <… **I** will use this information in **my** paper to describe the necessary steps that needed…> (nss1154rp) <…As **I** previously stated, no one would have a clue that this ad advertises jeans if …> (nss1036ca) <… **We** can compare a modern style of life to one that existed thirty to fifty years ago…> (gen0049rr) <... As **we** see, the words of Isabella Kong became actual, freedom and openness of young generation came into power…> (gen0049rr) <… If **we** say that the traditional family structure has its merits, respect for elders…> (esl0564rr) <… **We** can see clearly that human cruelty took a step to go as far as hurting and…> (esl0501rr) <… Finally **we** come to Moral Sense. This is where Twain and Sartre obviously do not agree…> (nss1033ca) <…society is less harsh and more open than that of the 18th Century. With that, **we** can "water down" some of Lord Chesterfield's ideas so that they apply to today…> (nss1012rr)

Category of *I/We*	Samples/Examples from Student Corpora
***I/We* as recounter**	<…**I** interviewed a person who told **me** that he has a neighbor who is so afraid…> (gen0077rp) <…He has a lot of statements that would help **me** explain that people use animals for their research…> (gen0006ab) <**...** In **my** recent psychology class, **I** learned that an authoritarian style of parenting is good for children to learn..> (nss1000rr) <… His main idea was that **we** live in a free country and that the government supports everyone's rights…> (gen0062ab) <… **We** can analyze this point of view by looking at the following example: Research…> (esl0578rp) < …Sartre believes that **we** have the over-all choice in what **our** lives become. He says that **we** can either believe in God or not…..> (nss1050cc)
***I/We* as source**	<… you have to buy it for **me**" **I** quickly replied to **my** mom. "Give **me** the money and **I**'ll buy it" **my** sister said reaching out her hand…> (gen0018de) <… **I** never know before **I** come to United States that seaweed is not conversant material for food. However for **me** seaweed soup is tasty it tastes like boundless ocean…> (esl0536de) <…these facts are shown in several peoples' opinion, **mine** however is positive of one side**. I**'ve grown up in a modern family my entire life, and **I** could not imagine living in a traditional one…> (nss1129rr) <… **We** lived in Lviv's suburb of Dublyani. **We** were coming home in a bus which took right to the center of Dublyani…> (gen0026de) <… Because **we** go to Turkey every summer, **I'**ve felt as though **I've** grown in both modern and traditional …> (esl0561rr) <…When **I** was in fourth grade, **I** was in a community bowling league and **we** would go bowl every Wednesday…> (nss1101de)
***I/We* as opinion-holder**	<…There is one difference from what **I** said and that's, "This is **my** opinion and what applies today can be different from you…> (gen0003rr) <…He says to "tell stories very seldom" (pg. 85). But **I** feel the opposite…**I** think his advice applies well to modern business and meetings…> (nss1001rr) <**..** At the same time **us**, as human being **we** have different kinds a thing that **we** like that other people don't like…> (gen0023de) < …No solutions have been found either through the use of vivisection. **We** the readers must heed this call to action and immediately do something to stop vivisection…> (nss1063ab)

Category of *I/We*	Samples/Examples from Student Corpora
***I/We* as originator**	<…Now tell **me** that just from reading how it is made you did not want to try it…> (gen0036de) <… **I** encourage that everyone at least try chicken wings once in your life…> nss1095de) <… By the way, thanks to these programs, **we** can learn something new and good for ourselves and for our children as well…> (gen0042rr) < …the fact is that **our** genetic code, **our** heredity, is what makes **us** who **we** are today. **We** can shape that self through our actions, but it will always have its roots…> (nss1028rr)

APPENDIX E:
EXAMPLES OF MODAL USE FROM STUDENT CORPORA

Modal/ Semi Modal	Type of Use	Example
Must	Root	<… The egg yolks in a moon cake have to be salted. In order to do this you **must** take many eggs as needed and put them into a bottle or jar, then you mix it…> (gen0028de) <… The mother **must** obey the husband and the children **must** obey their elders…> (esl0566rr) <… A person **must** use their dedication and persistence for success to occur…> (nss1001rr)
	Epistemic	<… Therefore, I figured out that it **must** be a food that my mother used to make for my family when we gathered…> (gen0019de) <…Twain disputes Darwin's theory that man ascended from the lower animals and instead concludes that human beings **must** have descended from higher animals..> (esl0514ab) <… people considered compassion a good attribute in the 18th century. However, it **must** have been faked, since self-service was the key to power at the time…> (nss1015rr)
Should	Root	<…When everything was set on the table, our dog and cat **should** be in the house…> (gen0036de) <… Tolerance **should** not be such a hard thing to provide…> (esl0579rp) <… These are the things that I live by and the qualities that most other Americans **should** be living by and using in their everyday lives…> (nss1008rr)
	Epistemic	<… After a while it **should** begin to look like unbaked bread…> (gen0032de) <… For this reason there defiantly **should** be a pause in scientific advancement until a set of laws can thoroughly define…> (nss1057cc)
Ought (to)	Root	<…Humans are always aware of what they **ought** and **ought** not do…> (nss1022rr)
Has/Have to	Root	<… When my entire of friends gathered around, the elderly uncle **has to** say some few words why people were invited to the house…> (gen0023de) <… To start the conversation, we **have to** listen first to have a good conversation…> (esl0500rr) <… The Government now has to support new schools and educational institutions because these immigrants…> (nss1158rp)
Need to	Root	<… What we, as people, **need to** do is bridge the two topics together and make since of the two…> (gen0003cc) <… When I have the dish, I **need to** be patient. Because it is not fast food, I **need to** wrap it carefully…> (esl0539de) <… In today's society you **need to** be serious about life so you can succeed…> (nss1005rr)

Modular PhD in Applied Linguistics

Module III:

VARIATION IN ACADEMIC WRITING AMONG GENERATION 1.5 LEARNERS, NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING LEARNERS AND ESL LEARNERS: THE DISCOURSAL SELF OF G1.5 STUDENT WRITERS

Mary C. Connerty

August 2008

A thesis submitted to The University of Birmingham in part fulfillment of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is a well-known African proverb: *It takes a village to raise a child*. I believe that it also takes a *village* to produce a PhD thesis, which can sometimes feel as painful and as joyous as giving birth. I would therefore like to thank my *village* since this thesis could not have been born or raised without the support of many people.

Rather than thank my family last, as is customary, I would like to start my thanks by recognizing my husband, Frank; my son, Ari; and my sister, Anne without whom this would not be possible or nearly so much fun. This has truly been a team effort. My family has sacrificed much simply because they believe in me; I am overwhelmed by their love and faith.

My supervisor, Dr. Susan Hunston, has been a patient, kind, and gracious source of knowledge and confidence. She contributed valuable insights to my research and her congenial guidance inspired my reflection and sharpened my focus. I would like to thank my other examiners, Dr. Chris Kennedy and Dr. Ken Hyland, for their time and insight. In addition, without former professor, Dr. Christina Bratt Paulston, I would never have discovered linguistics or the students who have taught me much more than I could ever teach them.

I would like to thank the student-colleagues who agreed to let me have access to their written work, sat through interviews, filled out questionnaires and answered countless questions. I want to particularly thank the G1.5 students who each day teach me about courage, dignity, strength and hope.

Thanks go to my colleagues at Penn State Erie, particularly Dr. Sharon Gallagher and Patience Simmonds, for their support during this project and for providing chocolate when necessary. Thanks also go to my fellow PhD students, Juliet Herring, Elaine Pryce, and

others, who housed me, took me on road trips, and understood and sympathized during the gestation process. Friends at home, particularly Joe Dorris, Louise Garrelts, and Nancy Thompson, who helped maintain my home village while I traveled to the U.K., also deserve a world of thanks. I am also grateful for the many unexpected friends I have made on my travels to the U.K., especially Fiona Sweetman and Tony Rawlins, who have opened their hearts and their homes to a stranger and who have expanded my village.

I would also like to acknowledge those people whose spirits are alive in my heart every day, particularly, my mother, Constance Connerty. I hope she is proud of me.

Finally, because it does take a village, I want to thank anybody who remotely helped me through this process: the student loan administrator who helped me navigate through international bureaucracy, the bus driver who patiently gave me directions, the passport control person who did not hold my country's politics against me and let me enter the U.K., my rabbi who has called me *Doctor* for four years as a way to encourage me, anyone who has ever been nice to me, and anyone who has not been nice but strengthened my resolve. Just as physicists argue that a butterfly flapping its wings in Tokyo can affect the weather in New York, so too have some seemingly random encounters brought me to this place, this day, for which I am very grateful.

All these people, named and unnamed, make up the village that has given birth to this research and raised this thesis, and to all of them I humbly say, "thank you".

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this Module is to identify salient linguistic differences among G1.5, traditional ESL, and NS student writers and to argue that G1.5 students' self-representation in writing is distinct from the other student groups. Using multiple methodologies, this module explores the discourse patterns of G1.5 students in their academic writing by presenting the following:

- A study involving surveys and interviews to evaluate what both students and instructors consider *good* academic writing and expect of student essays.
- Corpus data from G1.5, ESL, and NS student corpora to determine lexico-grammatical and syntactic patterns in G1.5 student writers and how they differ from both ESL and NS students. Salient features are analyzed using a framework where features are mapped onto an adapted version of Halliday's (2004) three macrofunctions of language, allowing for an analysis of semantic and lexico-grammatical features in terms of ideational, interpersonal, and textual positioning.
- Case studies of three essays to test corpus results and a framework of self-representation against individual performance.

The resulting text concludes that G1.5 students' self-representation in writing is distinct from other student writers, and manifests in their semantic choices, narrative style, and elements of a hybrid of academic and personal/interpersonal writing.

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CHAPTER 6

LIST OF CONVENTIONS USED IN THIS MODULE

Abbreviations used throughout the text

ESL	=	English as a Second Language student(s); traditional, international student studying abroad on a student visa
G1.5	=	Generation 1.5 student(s)
NNS*	=	Non-native speaker of English
NS*	=	Native English Speaking student(s)

*Please note that the usage of NS and NNS, for referring to native and non-native *English* speaking students, were chosen for their wide usage in the literature and because this document focuses on English language academic writing. No political or other agenda is implied by using these abbreviations to indicate native or non-native *English* speakers.

Files Codes – used for interview transcripts (CHAPTER 2)

1. Files codes appear in parentheses after each example, e.g. (ICO1)

2. Each transcribed file in the interview data has a four character code made up of the following parts:
    a. The first three characters identify the interviewee type:
        i. ICO = Instructor, composition
        ii. ICS = Instructor, composition and subject area
        iii. ISA = Instructor, subject area
        iv. GEN = Generation 1.5 student
        v. ESL = International/ESL student
        vi. NSS = Native speaker student

    b. A number indentifying members of the core groups
        i. 1 = Instructor/Student # 1
        ii. 2 = Instructor/Student # 2

Thus (ICO1) indicates composition instructor #1 and (GEN2) would indicate G1.5 student #2. Transcripts of interviews as well as copies of evaluated essays appear in Appendix B.

File Codes – used for examples from student corpora (CHAPTERS 3-6)

3. File codes appear in parentheses after each example, e.g. (gen0075rp)

4. Each file in the corpora has a nine character code made up of the following parts:
    a. The first three characters identify the corpus/writer type:
        i. gen = Generation 1.5 writer corpus
        ii. esl = ESL writer corpus
        iii. nss = Native Speaker corpus

    b. Four characters identifying the bibliography reference which would include details of the speaker's name, term when essay was written, writing prompt,

and first language of speaker where relevant appear following the writer type code. The first two digits of each code identify the corpus group:

i. 00xx = G1.5 writers, e.g. 0075
ii. 05xx = ESL writers, e.g. 0512
iii. 10 or 11xx = NS writers, e.g. 1023, 1182

c. Two characters at the end of the code identify the type of writing exercise/prompt:

i. rr = reader-response essay
ii. cc = compare-contrast
iii. ab = annotated bibliography
iv. rp = research project
v. ca = critical analysis
vi. de = descriptive essay
vii. ee = essay exam

Thus (gen0075rp) indicates a research project from the G1.5 corpus, file number 0075 (which include details of the writer's name, date of essay, L1, etc.).

File Codes – used for case study examples (CHAPTER 7)

1. Files codes appear in front each example sentence or paragraph, or in parentheses within the chapter text following a reference to an example, e.g. (C4.2)

2. Each example sentence or paragraph from a case study essay is indicated by a four character code made up of the following parts:
   a. The first character identifies the student essay from which the sample comes:
      i. C = Che's essay
      ii. P = Pedro's essay
      iii. N = Noel's essay

   b. A number indentifying the paragraph with the essay
      i. 1 = Paragraph 1

   c. A decimal point followed by another number indicating the sentence within the named paragraph:
      i. .8 = sentence 8

Thus (C4.8) indicates a sentence # 8 in paragraph 4 of Che's essay. Complete copies of the sample essays with paragraph and sentence markers appear in Appendix F.

CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION

"All our writing is influenced by our life-histories."
(Ivanič 1998:181)

1.1 Overview

The goal of this Module is to expand on the work done for Modules I & II by reporting on the results of a study using multiple methodologies designed to identify salient linguistic differences among G1.5, traditional ESL, and NS student writers. In addition, the intention herein is to argue that, though essays from the three student groups share many features, the distinct differences exhibited by G1.5 writers are best analyzed using a framework developed in Clark & Ivanič (1997), Ivanič (1994b, 1998), Ivanič & Camps (2001) and adapted from Halliday's (2004) three macrofunctions of language and the concept of *voice* types as discussed by Bakhtin (1981, 1986a, 1986b) and Wertsch (1991). This allows for an analysis of semantic and lexico-grammatical features in terms of ideational, interpersonal, and textual voice and thus conveys a portrait of the G1.5 students' self-representation in writing as distinct from other student writers.

In Module I, I tried to describe who G1.5 students are based on current literature, demographic data, and informal surveys and interviews; in Module II, I used corpus data to identify some key lexico-grammatical behaviors of these students. Specifically, corpus results from a pilot study suggested that the use of first person pronouns by this group of students was much more prominent than that of the other two groups. The corpus data also indicated that the lexical choices of the G1.5 students, despite writing prompt or essay assignment, showed a much higher percentage of terms related to family and personal relationships than did the word lists of the other two sampled groups. In this module, I hope to expand and refine the research in order to give a more comprehensive view of the linguistic identity and

behaviors of G1.5 students and the roles they play in the academic community of which they are a vibrant and growing sector.

Over a nearly three-year period, students in freshman ESL and non-ESL designated composition classes at Penn State Erie were given the same readings and writing prompts, and their essays were collected and analyzed using corpus linguistic and other qualitative methodologies. By analyzing the data from corpora created from the essays of G1.5, ESL, and NS writers, the frequency and function of the linguistic choices were examined and results compared to existing literature. Based on examination of differences in frequency of keywords, tagged part-of-speech features, and semantically-tagged wordlists among the three groups, results from the study suggest that G1.5 students do show distinct linguistic behaviors in their academic writing, employing more elements which could be interpreted as features of self-representation in their writing, more narrative elements, and fewer conventions of academic discourse, despite essay prompt or genre style. While the corpus data pointed to linguistic patterns and trends appearing in G1.5 student texts, close examination of the results indicated that a qualitative, comparative, and comprehensive analysis of individual writing samples and personal interviews with students and instructors regarding issues of language, writing, and assessment were needed in order to present a fully formed view of the discourse of G1.5 writers. This module, then, will explore the discourse of G1.5 students in their academic writing by presenting the following:

- A study involving surveys and interviews undertaken to evaluate what both students and instructors expect novice academic writers to produce and how it is evaluated. The goal was to determine how these students interpret the concept of *good* academic writing and therefore determine what they will try to produce in their texts.

- Three corpora which were created and analyzed to determine lexico-grammatical and syntactic patterns in G1.5 student writers and how they differ from both ESL and NS students.

- Case study analysis of three essays, where various affective variables were considered in order to test corpus results and a framework of self-representation against individual performance.

The resulting text attempts to convey a portrait of the G1.5 students' self-representation in writing as distinct from other student writers, and add to the current literature by presenting a comprehensive study of the salient linguistic features of G1.5 as compared to ESL or NS students.

1.2 Update on G1.5 Research since Modules I & II

G1.5 student numbers are growing; they are appearing more and more in mainstream classes, their needs are not the same as those of ESL students, effective instructional methods to help them improve are not the same as proven methods for ESL or for NS students, and our instructors are not prepared or trained to work with these students effectively. Since I submitted Module I in August 2005, interest in this sector of the student population has resulted in additional research. As a result, organizations, such as international TESOL, have dedicated sections of major conferences[22] to research in this area. Little, however, has been published and what has been done has primarily focused on anecdotal information and ethnographic studies on individual students (Blanton 2005, Bloch 2007, Crosby 2008, Losey 2006, Roessingh et al 2007, Schwartz 2006), and small scale studies on materials development for G1.5 students (Larsen 2008, Hirvela 2008, van Dommelen 2008). Blanton (2005), Bloch (2007), Crosby (2008) and Schwartz (2006) all focus on one-three G1.5 students in their studies and the students' behaviors in regards to academic literacy, reading skills, and communication strategies. Both Blanton (2005) and Crosby (2008) come to the conclusions that G1.5 students lack strategies to negotiate different academic literacies and have difficulty with grammar and expression in their academic writing. Block (2005) uses a

[22] The 42nd Annual International TESOL convention and the national CCCC conference in 2008 offered several sessions/presentations on G1.5 students at university.

single case study to argue that *blogging* provides necessary written communication practice for G1.5 students and helps improve their academic writing, though no specifics on improvement are discussed. Hirvela (2008) argues that lack of reading skills is highly problematic for G1.5 learners to transition into effective academic writers, and both Losey (2006) and Roessingh et al (2007) argue that pedagogy, programs, and policy for these students at pre-university institutions are lax in adequately preparing G1.5 students for academic success at the university level. Larsen (2008) and van Dommelen (2008) both provide examples where explicit instruction to a small group of G1.5 students in the differences between spoken and written language and models for essay writing were effective in improving their academic writing. Scholars and researchers now recognize these students as a distinct group of learners, separate from traditional ESL or NS students, though comprehensive and detailed studies of their linguistic development and behaviors have not yet appeared.

1.3 Rationale and Framework for Discussion

In order to frame the discussion of the discoursal behavior of G1.5 students, I need to make clear that I am starting with an important assumption, which was discussed in detail in Module II. This assumption is that all writing[23] is a social act, embedded in the social relations of a particular community with its own set of ideological conventions and cultural practices. This assumption carries with it several key concepts. The first has to do with the communal nature of writing, whereby I am not referring to the physical act of writing, but rather the socio-cultural act which has as its goal communication with other interlocutors. This is in opposition to the historic view of academic writing as objective, rational and impersonal, which resulted in the development of classroom texts and materials claiming

[23] In this thesis, I will be focusing on issues of written language and do not presume to transfer all of my observations and conclusions to the domain of the spoken word or other forms of communication.

writing to be a kind of neutral technology, a set of packaged core skills (e.g. summarizing, contrasting, describing, etc.) to be passed on to learners. In contrast, researchers, such as Candlin & Hyland (1999), Cherry (1988), Fairclough (1992), Halliday (2004), Hyland (2005a, 2005b, 2007), Ivanič (1994b, 1998), Ivanič & Camps (2001) and others, have argued that a socially situated view of language is more accurate, where the relationship between writer and content and between writer and reader must be considered. Ivanič (1994b, 1998) and Ivanič & Camps (2001), in particular, extend Goffman's (1959, 1981) framework of self-representation through social action and oral language use to writing, claiming that, while written expression does not carry the prosodic qualities of speech, lexical, syntactic, and content choices made by the writer convey a representation of the self of the writer (Ivanič 1994b: 3-4; Ivanič & Camps 2001:3-5). Hyland (2007) demonstrates that, at the professional level, academic writing is not monolithic and varies across disciplines and purposes. This social constructionist view of academic writing argues that texts represent conversations among individuals in particular communities, where content and language reflect the specific cultures and histories in which they are located. This suggests that more complex uses of language to engage, argue, and create consensus are required for effective writing than implementation of a simplistic set of skills could provide.

The second key assumption suggested by the above statement refers to sets of ideological conventions and cultural practices as part of particular communities. In terms of writing, this suggests that the social context of any activity (i.e. writing) cannot be separated from the objects (i.e. the texts) produced in relation to the context that gives rise to them. This is supported by the theory of language developed by Halliday (2004) that language serves three macrofunctions: the *ideational* function of representing the world, the *interpersonal* function of conducting social relations, and the *textual* function of presenting the message; he argues that all three functions appear simultaneously and a sentence can be analyzed grammatically

to indicate features which mark the different macrofunctions. Halliday, and subsequently Fairclough (1992), consider the interpersonal function to be the grammatical place where the writer indicates his/her relationship to both the reader and the subject matter; this would be realized through the use of various personal pronouns, modal auxiliaries, and more.

Ivanič (1994b, 1998), Ivanič & Camps (2001), however, argue that the writer is revealed in all three macrofunctions. They argue that all writing contains *voice* in the Bakhtinian sense (Bakhtin1981, 1986a, 1986b; Wertsch 1991), meaning that the language choice of a writer associates with a particular topic and particular ways of thinking about that topic, locating the writer culturally and historically. Bakhtin insists that the language choice of an individual is never a completely free combination of forms, but is always rooted, syntactically, discoursally, and topically, in a social language which shapes what the speaker's individual voice can say. He explains that

> "…Language is not a neutral medium that passes freely and easily into the private property of the speakers' intentions; it is populated – overpopulated – with the intentions of others. Expropriating it, forcing it to submit to one's own intentions and accents, is a difficult and complicated process." (1981:294)

Therefore, Bakhtin would argue that no part of language (i.e. syntax or vocabulary) is neutral and is always influenced by other utterances, always and only existing in a social milieu; consequently, the use of language by each individual is shaped and developed by continuous and constant interaction with others' utterances. This means that the form and function of an utterance (or piece or writing) is always representative of the speaker's (or writer's) sociocultural positioning at any particular moment, always expressing a point of view, perspective, intention, and world view.

In this sense, all writing conveys a representation of the self of the writer, an identity, which is not optional, but an integrated part of the discourse. Ivanič (1994b, 1998), Ivanič & Camps (2001) map this concept of *voice* onto Halliday's macrofunctions and argue that

ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions can also be thought of as *voice* or *positions*, whereby writers are *positioned,* "given a particular identity" (Ivanič 1994b:4), by the discourse(s) they draw on as they write. That is, Bakhtin's social identity approach to language can be examined using a framework based on Halliday-an terms which correspond to the three macrofunctions of language, where ideational positioning represents a person's values and beliefs about reality, affecting ideational meaning through language. Interpersonal positioning represents the social identity of the person and his/her relative status compared to others; finally, textual positioning would indicate the person's orientation to language use and discursive flow. This is a relevant way to consider identity in writing of various student writers, particularly the writing of language learners, who are new members of the academy and therefore reflecting varying degrees of 'other-ness' and 'their-own-ness' in their writing.

A simple email exchange from a student can serve as an illustration:

```
Student:      <May I meet you in your office at 2 p.m. to discuss my
              essay?>

Instructor:   <That would be fine. Please bring a copy of the essay in
              question.  See you at 2:00 p.m.>

Student:      <C U @ 2!>
```

The ideational positioning of this phrase is indicated by the content, a request for a meeting, along with the time and the topic, "my essay", and place, "your office". The student's subject as well as stance, as expressed by the polite "may", is indicated. The interpersonal positioning is expressed by the use of the possessive pronouns, but is also expressed in the use of the polite and formal "May I", projecting a view of the different power relationships between us as student and instructor. Finally, the textual positioning, the student's view of how to construct this text, is demonstrated by the interrogative mood, the details included in the question, and the polite and formal form of the request.

It should be noted in the above example that the ideational, interpersonal, and textual positioning are simultaneous, but not in a singular grammatical sense. Rather, the three types

of positioning are not alternatives and some features found in a text may contribute to one or more type of positioning simultaneously, as is illustrated by the various positions demonstrated by the modal *may*. In addition, Ivanič & Camps (2001) argue that the three types of positioning are heterogeneous, meaning that identity is not unitary and texts are often multi-voiced. This can be illustrated in the student's email response: "C U @ 2!" Here, the student demonstrates a shift from the formal and grammatical form of her first request to the informal shorthand of the reply, juxtaposing one identity against another. Because students, particularly G1.5 students, are the most novice writers in the academic community, this type of framework is useful for an analysis of their language use as their discourse reveals much about their identities.

The final concept to discuss here refers to the argument that all writing is located within a wider context whereby the issues concerning writing, the values attached to it, and its availability in society are all essentially bound to the way a social culture operates. Since it is the role of education to operate as the medium responsible for the transmission and reproduction of ideological and cultural structures, and, in particular, the role of writing and learning to write, then the argument is a socio-political one. In the academic community and in the wider culture generally, writing ability is necessary for "sharing and contributing to knowledge and ideological activity, and for gaining a measure of power" (Kress 1982:10). Therefore, teaching children to produce *good* writing is important to their success in the academy and perhaps beyond. Historically, schools have co-opted children into dominant values and socialized them to the dominant ideology, either through explicit instruction or implicit methods. In school, children are typically rewarded for aping the conventions they are taught; those who challenge conventions, either overtly or via different ways of being, are often marginalized or, at worst, dismissed. Because G1.5 students bring unique cultural histories and experiences to the classroom and a different set of literacies, they are often

challenged by instructional methods and standardized norms. With academic writing conventions rarely taught explicitly, most students approach an assignment with only a vague notion of what is expected. Institutionally we continue to frustrate and sometimes fail these and other non-traditional students by not making them aware of the ways in which they project personal and cultural identities in writing, any alternative voices that may be available to them, and the risks of perpetuating a dominant, yet undefined, set of conventions.

In this module, then, I will attempt to reveal the discoursal self of G1.5 students by looking at features of ideational, interpersonal, and textual positioning in the corpus and through investigation of individual essays and interviews. I am defining *discoursal self* using Clark and Ivanič's (1997:136) definition:

> …a particular representation of self through the practices and discourses they [writers] enter into as they write. This representation is shaped partly by their personal history, partly by the subject positions available in the prototypical literacy practices and discourse types available, and partly by other factors in the immediate social context.

My goal is to demonstrate that self-representation in G1.5 student texts is distinct from ESL or NS students and analyze how their self-representation affects their position in the academic community.

1.4 Research Questions

In this module, I take the position that all writing is self-representative, locating the writers culturally and historically. In this sense, self-representation refers to the process of conveying an impression of oneself to others (readers, in this case) through the social action of writing. This framework is particularly appropriate for examining G1.5 writing as these students represent people 'in-between'; they are young people of varying ages, backgrounds, languages, cultures, histories, looking for a voice within a system not designed to accommodate 'the other' socially or academically. The argument then is that the lexico-grammatical and syntactic choices they make in their writing convey a (self) representation of

writers different from their NS and ESL peers. To that end, and to try to fill in some of the gaps in the existing literature, the primary questions I try to answer herein are:

1. What do these students perceive as necessary for *good* writing? How is their writing perceived/evaluated by instructors across disciplines?

2. What semantic and lexico-grammatical features would appear in a corpus study to distinguish G1.5 student writers from ESL and NS students? What patterns and trends do they indicate among G1.5 writers? How does a qualitative analysis of use of these features compare/contrast to ESL and NS student writers?

3. How do the linguistic features G1.5 choose point toward their self-representation in their writing? How does this differ from ESL and NS students?

4. Who, then, are the G1.5 writers within the academic community? How do they see themselves? How does this manifest in their writing? What conclusions can we draw from an analysis of their writing?

1.5 Overview of Module

In order to attempt to answer the above research questions, several methodologies were implemented; since multiple methodologies will be used, key literature in support of analyses will appear in appropriate places within the text, rather than as a separate literature review chapter. In Chapter 2, a study on student assessment and evaluation, utilizing interviews and questionnaires, will detail the importance of student perception of what constitutes *good* academic writing and the attitudes and evaluations of both students and instructors towards NS and NNS student essays. In order to make generalizations about features of G1.5 student writing, corpus methodologies were also employed. Corpus data from three corpora (G1.5, ESL, and NS) will be discussed in terms of frequency of features and lexico-grammatical structures in Chapter 3. In Chapters 4-6, I will argue that writing cannot be separated from the writer's identity and that the discoursal selves of G1.5 student writers are discovered by viewing the linguistic realizations in their texts in terms of an adapted interpretation of Halliday's (2004) macrofunctions of language, where ideational positioning represents the view of the world and knowledge-making, the interpersonal positioning represents the view

of the writer-reader relationship, and the textual positioning represents views of organizing the message. Table 1.1 outlines the linguistic realizations to be discussed in relation to the types of positioning. Data will show that G1.5 students choose to self-represent in their texts with more elements of personal narratives and indications of their aural/oral learning. While focus on the differences among the three studied groups will be emphasized, areas of similarities will also be addressed. Chapter 4 will analyze some of these features in detail as they pertain to ideational positioning expressed by G1.5 students in their writing, while

Type of voice/positioning	Refers to:	G1.5 linguistic Realizations
Ideational Positioning	Different interests, objects of study; Different views of knowledge-making	• Lexis – semantic choices • Reference to human agency – Proper names, pronouns • Verb type (lexical) • Verb tense (past) • Narrative features –Verb tense, Locative & temporal adverbs, personal references • Specific references - Exemplification, determiners
Interpersonal Positioning	Different degrees of self-assurance, certainty; Different relationships between writer and reader	• Personal pronoun references, esp. 1st person • Evaluation • Questions • Conjunctions • (Lack of) reduced clauses • Non-academic discourse features – narrative elements, conversational elements, informal elements
Textual Positioning	Different views of how a text should be constructed	• Linking devices – conjunctions, exemplifications • Prepositional phrases • (Lack of) Rhetorical features • (In) Formality of lexis

Table 1.1:: Simultaneous types of voice positioning and G1.5 linguistic realizations (adapted from Halliday 2004, Ivanič & Camps 2001)

Chapter 5 will focus on those lexico-grammatical features which indicate the interpersonal voice of G1.5 students in their texts. Chapter 6 reviews those features that mark textual positioning. Moving from general patterns and trends, I use a case study approach in Chapter 7 to discuss three G1.5 essays in detail, and test the analysis of varying patterns found in earlier chapters against individual essay production. In addition, the important differences that appear in writing based on variables, such as individual student age, length of time in the U.S., and socio-economic status, will be discussed. Finally, in Chapter 8, I will offer some conclusions about the linguistic identity of G1.5 students and their place in the academy; I also identify some of the limitations of this study and hope to be able to make recommendations for both institutional changes and instructional support to help provide more effective learning experiences for these students.

CHAPTER 2:
WHAT IS *GOOD* ACADEMIC WRITING? - PERCEPTIONS AND ASSESSMENTS BY STUDENTS AND INSTRUCTORS

"I ranked it [the essay] as good, and I said that the professor would rank it as bad…Because I think that this sounds like ESL students." (ESL2[24])

2.1 Introduction

2.1.1 Rationale

As indicated in Chapter 1, analysis of the discoursal self of a student writer includes writer positioning towards various aspects of his/her task. One aspect involves the writer's view of how, in this case, an academic essay should be constructed. Before examining the realizations of these views in corpus and individual data, it is relevant to examine what both students and instructors consider important to see in academic writing. Since all student writing is evaluated in the academy, it seems essential to understand how both students and instructors regard assessment of writing and to determine if they share similar views of how a written text should be constructed. Therefore I will begin my discussion of positioning with a study of evaluation to determine if students', with G1.5 students' in particular, and instructors' preferred ways of turning meaning into text are shared and transparent to one another.

Research reviewed in Module I indicated that the growing population of G1.5 students at colleges and universities generally do not identify themselves as ESL learners and prefer to enroll in mainstream composition classes rather than ESL classes. Anecdotal comments from instructors and professors note that they find many of these students 'problematic', as instructors blame poor language skills for poor writing. However, most

[24] Please refer to List of Conventions, located at the front of this Module, for explanation of identifying codes.

instructors are unaware of the language backgrounds of their students. Only when a student exhibits extreme difficulty in writing will an instructor point to grammatical errors as a sign of a nonnative speaker and often not be willing to work with the student; this is generally because of a lack of training in second language writing and/or an overload of existing work.

Before examining data findings in student texts, my purpose in this chapter is to determine what is expected of students in their composition writing both by their instructors and by themselves. That is, it is important to understand what and how students think they are expected to write. Because my purpose is to discover how G1.5 students see themselves and are seen by the academic community, and what features identify their writing, it seemed reasonable to examine how the students perceive their own writing and how instructors evaluate their writing. The questions then that drive the research in this chapter include:

1. What elements of student essays are valued, evaluated, and/or overlooked by relevant readers?
2. How do students and instructors evaluate *good* student writing?
3. Do we (students and instructors, NS and NNS) all have the same standards when we evaluate writing?

Determining some of these answers can give valuable insight into what students attempt to produce as acceptable writing and what their perceived identification is with the academic community.

For composition instructors, the concept of *good* writing is problematic because it can be interpreted differently and vary by environment, instructor, pedagogical approach (Bartholomae 1995; Hebb 2000; Ivanič 1998; Kruse 2003), and by culture (Ivanič & Camps 2001; Leki 1995b; Bizzell 1992). These differences can cause confusion for students and influence their perceptions of the evaluation criteria for their written work. In view of this and the questions posed above, I attempted a small study to explore the perceptions of students (NS and NNS) concerning the nature of *good* academic writing and the way it is

evaluated by their instructors, as well as to discover the evaluation criteria used by instructors (both composition and subject area instructors).

2.1.2 Organization of Chapter

In this chapter, I will first review relevant research on the nature of *good* writing, instructor assessment of academic writing, and student perceptions of academic writing and instructor evaluation. I will then present details of the methodology for this study (Section 2.3), followed by the results and a discussion of findings (Section 2.4). Results will be analyzed to determine if there is consistency between instructor and student standards for academic writing, as well as transparency of instruction. Finally, in Section 2.5, I will review conclusions in preparation for the findings of the corpus study which will follow in subsequent chapters.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Academic Writing

While it is an accepted fact that writers in the academy use language to evaluate their material, acknowledge others' contributions, make convincing arguments, and claim solidarity with readers, I pointed out in Chapter 1 (and in Module II) that underlying much recent research on academic writing is the further claim that academic writing is a social practice involving interaction between writers and readers (Fairclough 1992; Ivanič 1998; Halliday 2004; Hyland 2005a, 2005b). As Hyland states, "Put succinctly, every successful academic text displays the writers' awareness of both its readers and its consequences" (2005b:173-174). This interaction, as Hyland suggests, requires the writer to essentially adopt a point of view about the material in the text through specific linguistic choices to "balance claims for the significance, originality and plausibility of their work against the convictions and expectations of readers" (2005b:176). This social, cultural aspect of

academic writing includes an underlying assumption of the academy as a discourse community where specialized forms of reading, writing, thinking, norms and conventions (i.e. literacy) are in place and accessed/are accessible by all community members (Bizzell 1986; Ivanič & Camps 2001; Johns 1995; Lea & Street 1998, 1999; Leki 1995). Academic literacy, then, refers to the knowledge of a body of literature, conventions, and intertextual tradition to which the writer and reader have access and which they can manipulate. The problem of course is that not all members of the discourse community have equal access resulting in inconsistent acceptance of what is acceptable, *good*, academic writing.

While some scholars argue that only published scholarship represents true academic discourse (Elbow 1991), others consider all writing done in the academy as part of the academic conversation, even those writings produced by students (Bartholomae 1995, 1985; Bizzell 1992; Clark & Ivanič 1997; Ivanič 1998; Peck MacDonald 1994). Peck MacDonald (1994:9) defines academic writing as a "vehicle for constructing and negotiating knowledge claims" and offers a continuum on which academic writing might be classified by degrees from novice to expert, as seen in Figure 2.1. Peck MacDonald's paradigm suggests that successful academic writing can be achieved even by those at the entry levels of the academic community, if we evaluate student work according to developmental progress and milestones

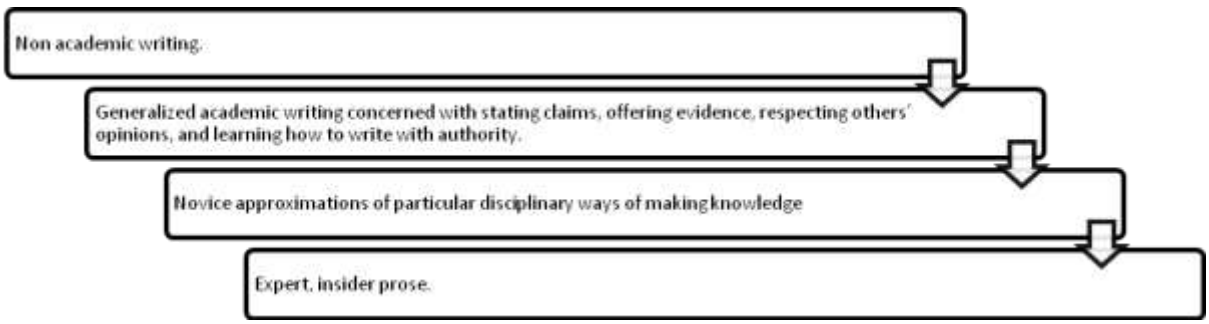

Figure 2.1: Continuum of academic discourse development **(**adapted from Peck MacDonald 1994:187)

rather than comparing student work to professional norms. Ivanič (1998:81-82) also suggests that this type of approach might be appropriate for student evaluation. She argues that academic conventions are not static, monolithic, or universal; yet we assume learners will naturally absorb them. She offers four considerations for helping learners become successful writers in the academy:

1. Academic conventions are not natural products of common sense, but rather natural***ized*** [emphasis hers] products of power.

2. There are similarities in academic conventions across genres and discourses which get lost in taxonomies.

3. Most studies of academic writing focus on the work of experts whose practices may not apply directly to apprentice and novice members of the community.

4. Instructors in this field often assume that direct teaching of certain conventions is enough, rather than a slower development of an awareness of subtleties and a refinement of skills.

As beginning university students, G1.5 students in particular are attempting to establish their identities within the academic community, while bringing with them complex identities from their lives outside the academy. Hebb (2000:24-42) argues that, when most students begin university, they are expected to take on a new language, culture, and identity which may result in a clash of dialects, ways of thinking, and discourse forms. Clark & Ivanič (1997:134-135) note that students often feel the tension between their multiple and conflicting identities when trying to express themselves in academic writing. In his ground-breaking essay, *Inventing the University*, Bartholomae explains that "The student has to appropriate (or be appropriated by) a specialized discourse and he has to do this as though he were easily and comfortably at one with his audience, as though he were a member of the academy…" (1985:134). While this is an appealing explanation of why and how students should write, Bartholomae's idea is grounded in the view that, though students come with their own voices, there are academic conventions which are uncontestable. Though he does

not name these conventions, the implication is that they are there and students must somehow acquire them. He does not suggest how these conventions are to be acquired nor does he consider the possibility that students might bring alternative discourses to the community. For students, therefore, particularly NNS students, joining in the academic conversation can represent both the promise of success (if they learn to read and write the "discourse") and an oppressive situation where they are asked to disconnect from their own discourse modes and don masks.

2.2.2 Instructor Perceptions of Good *Writing*

The above survey problematizes defining *good* academic writing for the conscientious instructor as confusing at best and oppressive at worst, and suggests that evaluation of student writing might be inconsistent based on differing instructor pedagogical approaches and assignment goals. In an overview of college composition curricula, Weese et al (1999) described the elements of a typical writing program to include assignments based on readings, self-exploration and collaborative tasks, but no grammar or vocabulary tasks and no summaries or academic text conventions. Typical syllabi involve reading essays on varying topics, followed by classroom and group discussion, and resulting in a writing assignment. Every composition instructor is familiar with the many writing handbooks, suggesting the use of elements such as impersonal pronouns, passive voice, complex sentence structures, specialized vocabulary, and the five-paragraph essay model – an introduction, three body paragraphs, and a conclusion. Though many instructors acknowledge that these tools are in opposition to critical literacy and critical pedagogy, they do provide familiar and measurable elements with which to grade student writing.

Hebb (2000:35-42) reviews several models for composition courses and student evaluation which introduce students to generic academic conventions: structure (explicitness), reference (citations), and language (syntactic and semantic patterns,

metaphoric and idiomatic language). Since the wide acceptance of writing-across-the-curriculum and the development of literacy theory (Bizzell 1986), this type of model has been instituted in college composition programs where instructors have students utilize conventions and analyze authentic texts in order to introduce students to the complexities of academic discourse. However, researchers like Spack (1988, 1997) and Zamel (1998) caution against the imitation of authentic texts, in favor of discovery. Ivanič (1998), however, argues that using authentic texts as models does lead to discovery rather than imitation if the students are made aware of the discourse practices of the texts and their effect on the reader.

Bizzell (1999), Hebb (2000), Ivanič (1998) and others argue for a more radical approach to composition instruction, advocating acceptance of *hybrid discourse*, a mixture of home and school languages, into the repertoire of student writing, claiming that alternative forms of discourse allow those students who have been previously named as 'outsiders' to join the intellectual conversation of the academy and enter into the community at their own pace, on their own terms. Furthermore, they argue that this type of discourse should be valued for its potential to enrich the language and meaning-making of more traditional academic communities. For G1.5 students in particular, this approach could be an empowering alternative to having their language use often be deemed transitional and impoverished.

While most scholars agree that multiple discourses should be acknowledged, the reality of classroom instruction and evaluation is often different in practice and difficult to implement. Faced with multiple sections of composition classes and masses of weekly marking, even the best instructors often lose sight of their pedagogical dreams and look to concrete evidence in a student text in order to quantify its success. Even in the enduring *Elements of Style*, Strunk and White advise beginning writers to "err on the side of conservatism, on the side of established usage" when faced with a choice between " the

formal and the informal, the regular and the offbeat,...the orthodox and the heretical" (1979:84). However, they do advise that experimenting is better than conforming when being a "pioneer" is not merely evasion or laziness – and good Standard English has been mastered (1979:84)!

Moreover, student writing is not only evaluated by composition instructors, but also by subject-area instructors with whom students take the majority of their classes. These instructors, whose focus is on teaching students discipline-specific subject matter, may have less training in approaches to rhetoric and writing instruction and who may have their own perceptions and prejudices regarding effective academic discourse. I could find no research on subject-area instructor evaluation of student writing, suggesting that little is known about the feedback students receive from these instructors and how it might affect student performance.

2.2.3 Student Perceptions of Good *Writing*

Literature in the field of academic writing suggests a gap between instructor expectations and student perception of the nature of academic writing and what is required of them (Bartholomae, 1995; Ezer & Sivan 2005; McCune 1999). As mentioned above, learning the conventions of writing in the academy, for L2 students in particular, is crucial for a student to gain access to the academic discourse community. However, these conventions are not made clear or comprehensible to the student (Ezer & Sivan 2005; Guerra 1997). These students may suffer not only from deficient language and literacy skills in the target language, but also from having different cultural conceptions of the academic environment. Traditional ESL learners, for example, who have had extensive EAP training, must balance what they are learning about English writing with what they know about the form and function of writing in their L1; at the same time, G1.5 students, who have had their formative academic training in the U.S., would not have received much explicit teaching on rhetorical

patterns or academic writing features and would be expected to intuit these elements from texts, at the same time they are still learning to master the language. Without extensive training in academic discourse in their L1 either, they are often left without a clear idea of what is expected of them and/or how to accomplish those expectations.

Studies on the perceptions of good academic writing among L2 students and their instructors by researchers such as Fox (1994), Harris (1997) and Leki (1995b) reveal a difference between what the students believe their instructors thought and the actual opinion of the instructors. These studies suggest that, for students, a good piece of writing had to be interesting, present valuable information, and follow rhetorical conventions. In contrast, they believed that their English instructors considered good writing to be primarily a matter of good organization (introduction–body–conclusion, clear divisions, etc.), correct grammar, sophisticated language, and interesting topics. In addition, they believed that their content area instructors were looking mainly for subject matter and the inclusion of information on research, precise facts, and data. In summation, the various studies clearly indicate that instructors and students hold different views of academic writing, further problematizing the issue. Until the two groups share the same perceptions, students, and L2 students in particular, will find it difficult to improve their writing and become part of the academic discourse community in institutions of higher education.

2.3 Methodology

2.3.1 Participants

Thus far, I have demonstrated that the problems in defining elements of academic writing include inconsistencies in what instructors teach and how they evaluate student writing, as well as the difficulties this causes for students entering the academy. Therefore it seemed appropriate to conduct a study to determine how NS and NNS students interpreted

the concept of *good* writing which would affect what they tried to produce, as well as to determine if their considerations matched instructor evaluation.

The study's participants consisted of 10 contributors in two major categories: students and instructors. Within each category, there were three subcategories; the specific groups and number of participants appear in Table 1. While 10 participants in a study is not sufficient to make broad generalizations based on results, the reason for the small number of contributors was beyond my control and will be discussed in further detail below. The population for this study was chosen to represent a cross-section of students discussed throughout this thesis (see Chapter 3) as well as composition and other content-area instructors for whom students would be expected to write and therefore by whom they might be evaluated. Members of all three student groups include G1.5, ESL, and NS students. All students were at the end of their first year of university and therefore, presumably at about equal levels of experience with academic writing; none of the students were enrolled in a composition class at the time they participated.

In order to eliminate self-report data and incorporate a broader view of instructor assessment, I did not include my evaluations of any of the essays used for this survey, but rather asked other instructors to participate, including composition lecturers, subject area lecturers/ professors, and one lecturer with a joint appointment in composition and religious

Group	**Number of Participants (N=10)**
Gen 1.5 Students	2
ESL Students	2
NS Students	1
Total Students	**5**
Composition Lecturers	2
Composition/Religious Studies Lecturer	1
Subject Area Lecturer/Professor (Anthropology/Philosophy)	2
Total Instructors	**5**

Table 2.1: Number of participants by group

studies. This instructor was also chosen because he has had some experience working with ESL students in the past; other instructors had no ESL teaching experience. Content area instructors who agreed to participate were from the School of Humanities and Social Sciences. Instructors from the composition department as well as subject –area specialists were asked to participate in the hopes of determining if there were differing approaches to evaluating student writing and, if so, what these differences were and what their effects on students were. Similarly, I asked NS, ESL, and G1.5 students to participate in order to ascertain student views on good writing and on instructor evaluation.

Initially I invited 15 students and 15 instructors to participate in the study; while I thought it would be unwieldy to interview a larger number of participants, I did want a cross-section of student input as well as a variety of composition staff and subject area instructors from many disciplines – Natural Sciences, Mathematics, Engineering, Business, Social Sciences, and Humanities. The resulting 10 participants were those who gave their consent to take part in the study (see Appendix A for copy of consent form). Ten participants are not enough to suggest broad trends and generalizations, nor present definitive answers to issues of evaluation and assessment of student writing. However, this part of the research was intended to be a supplement to the corpus study section of this thesis and to provide further insight into identifying features of G1.5 student texts. While a large-scale study would have been ideal, this initial study does offer some insight into issues of writing assessment and the inconsistencies in what is labeled *good* writing in our university composition and subject area classes, and suggests an important area for further study.

In order to illustrate some of the potential problems students face regarding instruction and evaluation of composition (see Section 2.2.2), it is appropriate here to relay an occurrence in setting up this study. There was an additional composition instructor who initially gave his consent to participate and then withdrew it. This instructor was the lecturer

who, during the fall 2006 semester, agreed to partner his composition with my ESL composition class. This instructor volunteered for his class to be the NS control group for my G1.5/ESL class and therefore allowed me to use his syllabus, readings, and writing assignments for my class and to collect essays from all NS students who agreed to participate. I also attended several of his classes in order to ensure that discussions in the two classes followed similar content. In order to prepare this part of my research, I informed this instructor about my intended assessment study and asked if he would choose an essay from one of his students in this class (from a particular writing assignment) to contribute. I wanted an essay that was graded as good (about a *B*); I did not want an excellent paper that might signal above average work and not leave a lot of room for discussion; nor did I want a paper so poor that very obvious errors might distract the readers and unduly influence their assessments. He agreed and also agreed to participate in the study. However, when I gave out the materials for the study, he felt that he could not continue to participate because, after reading all the essays included and the instructions, he felt that our pedagogical approaches had been significantly different and he called into question our differing views and goals of the composition class. While I instructed students to avoid personal opinion essays and base any claims they made in their texts on proof from the readings, this lecturer encouraged his students to include personal opinion. In other words, we discovered that we were taking very different approaches to a freshman composition course – I was taking the view that I was preparing students for any writing they might have to do at university, no matter what their discipline was; he was taking the view that the composition class was an end in itself and its purpose was to engage the students in personal written expression. Interestingly, this instructor also has a joint appointment in Political Science and told me that he evaluates papers in his Political Sciences classes completely differently than in his composition classes; in his Political Science classes he would not accept personal opinion or anecdotes, but he

views that as a disciplinary difference. This disagreement resulted in program level meetings where we discovered that our composition staff is indeed split upon pedagogical lines and this has been the impetus for debate about the role of composition classes within our institution. While issues of subject-area instruction and evaluation are not part of this debate, it is forcing the composition staff to decide, as a unit, on an approach based on either rhetorical or composition-based pedagogy in order to provide some consistency for our students. Significantly, this debate reflects some of the problems students perceive in the assessment of their texts as will be discussed below.

2.3.2 Tools

This study employed three types of tools: (1) written instructions for reading and evaluating three student essays; (2) a semi-structured grading criteria chart for identifying elements of student writing; and (3) unstructured personal interviews held with students and instructors. The instructions advised participants to read and assess three essays, each on a scale of *good-fair-poor*; in addition, student readers were asked to evaluate the essays as they thought an instructor would rate each one using the same scale (see Appendix B.1 for complete instructions). The essays were final drafts (two previous drafts would have been written and evaluated by an instructor as well as peer reviewers in class) chosen from among those written during the fall 2006 semester by students in the ESL composition class and its *sister* NS composition class. The prompt for the essay was based on readings and followed several class discussion periods, asking students to examine the ideas of two different authors; the complete writing assignment appears in Figure 2.3. Though the essays given to the readers were final drafts, and therefore would have had some revision, care was taken to preserve the authentic features of the final drafts, including spelling and grammatical errors (see Appendix B.2 for copies of the essays). The essays were given along with written instructions and a grading criteria sheet (see Table 2.2) and participants were asked to make

The Assignment: Writing on Multiple Authors

Jeanette Winterson, *Imagination and Reality*
Dorothy Allison, *This is Our World*

Jeanette Winterson, in *Imagination and Reality*, describes the role of the audience for art as itself a pretty demanding one. Just purchasing or exposing oneself to art is not enough, according to Winterson. Rather, one must truly open oneself up to it. "Money can buy you the painting or the book or the opera seat, but it cannot expose you to the vast energies you will find there", Winterson writes (601). She continues: "Love is reciprocity and so is art. Either you abandon yourself to another world that you say you seek or you find ways to resist it." What does Winterson mean by "reciprocity", and why does she use this word to describe art? "Art is dangerous", Winterson insists (601). What is it that art exposes us to, that has danger in it?

Allison touches on a similar issue when she talks about how it is the business of art to disturb, to "provoke uncertainty" (48). Art, in Allison's view, "should make us think about what we rarely think about at all" (48).

Write on your essay on the following topic:
Is Allison's theory, that art should unsettle us, like or unlike Winterson's view that art involves "reciprocity"? Allison indicates that art should turn our faces towards something that we otherwise would resist seeing. How does the resistance which Allison finds in the viewers of art compare to the claim made by Winterson that we should "abandon" ourselves to the art we experience?

Please note that we are not asking whether you agree or disagree with the authors, whether or not you like their theories. Your opinion is irrelevant here. Here, we are asking you to synthesize the authors' positions and make an argument about the similarities and/or differences between Allison's and Winterson's ideas.

All drafts should be typed, double-spaced, Times-New Roman 12-pt font. Final drafts should be 4-5 pages in length.

Figure 2.2: Writing prompt for essays used in this study as given to students and study participants[25]

written notes on the essays with any comments, grading criteria, and assessment value. Unstructured interviews were conducted approximately one-three weeks after giving out the materials. Interviewees were asked to elaborate and explain their assessments. The interviews were taped and transcriptions appear in the Appendix (see Appendix B.3); three interviews (two composition instructors and one G1.5 student) are not transcribed due to mechanical difficulties; their comments and evaluations included here come from their written comments and researcher notes.

[25] Essays and references in the assignment come from the students' reader: Coleman, B. et al. eds. (2004) Making Sense: Essays on Art, Science, & Culture. 2nd ed. New York, Houghton Mifflin.

2.3.3 Procedure

The study was conducted in three stages. In Stage 1, each participant was given all the materials and asked to evaluate three essays, which had been coded using the names 'Hyacinth', 'Tulip', and 'Daffodil'. These names were selected for their neutrality so that they could not be confused with any hierarchical system that might be associated with grading or ranking (Ezer & Siva 2005:123). In addition, I did not want the essays to reflect any other kind of marking associated with gender, L1 or L2 in order to avoid possible unconscious biases on the part of the readers. Instructors were asked to (a) grade each essay as *good*, *fair*, or *poor*; (b) explain on paper, in each case, why they had given that particular grade; and (c) note on each essay any elements that they liked or disliked. The category of

Category	Criteria
Content	Presenting & developing a main idea; connecting ideas; clear, comprehensible content; explanations, illustrations, examples; development of central idea; relating to an academic audience.
Rhetoric & Logic	Rhetorical structure; convincing argument; cohesion; logic; connections between ideas; examples.
Structure & Organization	Organized structure (intro, body, conclusion)
Critical Thinking	Critical approach; reasoning based on expertise, evidence, knowledge; presenting different aspects of topic; maintaining a stance; evidence beyond personal opinion.
Language	Rich language; vocabulary; fluency; academic register; syntax, style, wording; grammatical correctness; punctuation
Academic Level & Accuracy	Academic accuracy; relying on research; reference to sources; detailed
Other	Student followed instructions for assignment; evidence of making an effort; length.

Table 2.2: Categories of assessment by instructors and students
(Adapted from Derwing, Rossiter & Ehrensberger-Dow 2002; Ezer & Siva 2005; Sheorey 1986; Wolfe & Davinroy 1998)

assessment chart was given to help readers articulate their reasons for the grading, to be used as a kind of framework, similar to a grading rubric used by many instructors. Instructors were also asked to mark papers as they would for a student in one of their classes. They were also advised that assessment was not comparative; that is, each essay was to be evaluated independently from the other two. Student participants were given the same instruction with an additional task; students were asked to grade each essay as *good-fair-poor* first as they themselves would judge it, and then as they believed an instructor would grade it.

Stage 2 took place one – three weeks after giving out materials, depending on people's schedules. Assessment data was collected and unstructured interviews were conducted with all participants. The interviewees were asked to explain the assigned grades and the considerations that had guided the decisions. Using the categories of assessment chart (see Table 2.2), the researcher asked each interviewee to identify specific moments in each text where various elements, considered *good* or not, helped in determining their grading. Students were also asked to explain how they determined the grade they thought an instructor might give. Additionally, each interviewee was asked to assess whether s/he thought each essay was written by a NS or NNS of English and how s/he came to that conclusion. Stage 3 involved transcribing the interviews, collating the data, and analyzing the results.

2.4 Results and Discussion

2.4.1 Grading

The distribution of grading for each essay was calculated for student assessment, instructor assessment as perceived by students, and instructor assessment. The results are presented in Table 2.3. The instructor with the joint appoint in composition and religious studies expressed discomfort with the *good-fair-poor* ratings saying,

> …I found myself really, again, a kind of resistance to the overarching terms, as if we know what we mean by those. In other words, I wasn't sure—I wasn't sure what you had taught to surround this thing with a context to say ah, it's fair within that….And so I don't know what you've taught exactly. So I was thinking, well, you know, maybe Mary hasn't emphasized introducing citations… Maybe you haven't had any workshops or practice on, you know, the sort of recycling of key terms in it. So I'm objecting to something that hasn't been taught…For me to come up with a fair, poor, sort of thing, would be using my template—…So I sort of, and I said that, you know, as a note toward the end, you know, I sort of respond in terms of if this were my student (ICS1)

In order, however, to include his data, I took the liberty of using his comments about the essays and translating them into *good-fair-poor* ratings for purposes of consistency. Additionally, in a few instances participants ranked essays in between a particular grade, as *good-fair* or *fair-poor*, for example. In these cases, I read over comments very carefully and assigned an assessment based on the overall comments of the interviewee, as in the following example where the instructor doesn't assign a specific grade but where her comments resulted in my interpretation into a *good* grade:

> And I guess—it looks like the third one was also pretty good. I didn't make a specific note about college level, but I did say it was well-written, well-organized. (ISA1)

Though there is limited value to the figures because of the small number of participants, looking at the results can give us some useful information. Student grades overall seem fairly evenly spread across the three essays. For students, however, we can notice from the data that *fair* scores were given the least often (by one student per essay);they seemed to prefer scores at either end of the spectrum to a more mid-level score, with seven scores given as *good* and five scores as *poor*. One student expressed his choice for grading in the following written comment:

> "…I don't know whether I'm the harshest grader ever or these essays are NOT GOOD [emphasis his]. It turns out I gave three of them a poor grading, stated my reasons …Obviously I

couldn't see all the good/bad points the students made…." (ESL1).

Instructors, on the other hand, seemed to score fairly evenly across the three levels: six *good* scores, five *fair* scores, and four *poor* scores; instructors were also more willing to give out *fair* grades with comments such as: "'Fair'…not fully developed thesis…overuse of quotes relative to author's ['Tulip's'] own words" (ISA1). Differences in student grades, perceived grades, and instructor grades will be further discussed below.

	'Hyacinth'			**'Tulip'**			**'Daffodil'**		
	GOOD	**FAIR**	**POOR**	**GOOD**	**FAIR**	**POOR**	**GOOD**	**FAIR**	**POOR**
NS Students (N=1)	✓					✓	✓		
ESL Students (N=2)	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓	✓
Gen 1.5 Students (N=2)	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓
Total Students (N=5)	3	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	2
Instructors as perceived by NS students	✓					✓		✓	
Instructors as perceived by ESL students	✓		✓		✓	✓		✓✓	
Instructors as perceived by Gen 1.5 students	✓	✓		✓✓			✓		✓
	3	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	1
Composition Lecturers (N=2)		✓✓			✓	✓	✓✓		
Composition/Religious Studies Lecturer (N=1)			✓		✓		✓		
Subject Area Lecturer/Professor (Anthropology/Philosophy) (N=2)	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓✓		
Total Instructors (N=5)	1	2	2	0	3	2	5	0	0

Table 2.3: Distribution of scores given by students and instructors to three essays

2.4.2 Student Evaluation

In order to get a picture of how students determine *good* writing, they were asked to comment on specifics in the three texts. They were also asked to use the criteria chart (Table 2.2) to help organize their comments. Students found using the rubric more difficult than I anticipated and therefore their comments do not refer back specifically to the categories on the chart, though those elements are discussed in their comments.

As mentioned above, student grades of the essays represented a spectrum of assessments with *fair* grades being the least common. In looking at the comments made by students regarding specific grades, a surprising trend appears. G1.5 students seemed to rank the essays primarily on whether or not they agreed with the authors' positions and on the level/number of grammatical errors. For example, one G1.5 student made the following comments about giving the 'Tulip' essay a *good* grade:

> This whole paragraph, I so far agree with it strongly… And it's realize—that I believe it is true. It seemed to—I like it how he and she explained the same opinion with the Winterson and Allison, and I also agree with it about the—hmm, so society is afraid of this, realize, because it is so big. But on the last paragraph I will say I believe that artists must use imagination to create real life. I like that and I agreed that sometime something—I'm sorry, something it's real when you can physically touch, smell, see, and that use all our sense. Yeah. So far I agree, all of them. (GEN1)

The student could be responding positively to the 'Rhetoric and Logic' of the writer or on elements the writer successfully employed from the 'Critical Thinking' category; however, as she does not respond with specific evidence from the text, it is hard to conclude whether her personal agreement with the writer's position was at all influenced by the writer's technique. The student goes on to say that she likes this essay, but it has a few grammar mistakes ('Language' Category, Table 2.2). The 'Daffodil' essay, however, was graded as *poor* by this student because "The first paragraph doesn't attract the reader...It was difficult to read, very wordy" ('Content' and 'Language' Categories).

Similarly, the other G1.5 participant notes in writing whether or not she liked/agreed with any opinion expressed by the essays' authors and her evaluation seems to match her level of agreement. In the G1.5 interviews and notes, there is little comment about following the assignment or evaluation of content apart from whether or not they agreed with the authors.

The ESL students' comments suggest that their assessment of the essays was based primarily on how well they felt the essay fulfilled the assignment requirements ('Other' category) as well as what they had been taught about *good* writing. For example, one ESL student reported on the 'Hyacinth' essay:

> Like, when I read the thesis, I was expecting to read an essay about Winterson's ideas only [inaudible]. Well, that was actually the case throughout the essay. See, like, it was one of those essays where there is an idea, and all the paragraphs were addressing the same idea, so, like, there weren't too many ideas to organize…The other problem was that the student used his or her own experiences a lot, which I don't like. Which even in the assignment it was stressed that it's not about your opinion or what you think— (ESL1).

Here the student suggests that the essay was not good because it did not address both readings as the assignment asked and the author included too much personal opinion ('Other' and 'Critical Thinking'). The reviewer is addressing only those content areas relating to the instructions in the assignment. Similarly, the other ESL participant (who gave the essay a *good* grade) says of the same essay:

> 'Hyacinth' connects those authors together to get a brand new view of the whole situation…I would be careful though about using, I think I agree, and I like, because it says very—like, in the assignment that your opinion is not, like, relevant, and 'Hyacinth' says, like, all the way, like, right here, it says I agree with Winterton [phonetic] (ESL2).

Again the student is commenting on the writer's success or failure to follow the assignment and, though these students ranked the essay with very different grades, their criteria appears based on the elements of the assignment and principles of organization and content on which to base their rankings.

The evaluation of the three essays by the NS participant differ from both G1.5 and ESL student comments. This student often remarks on organization, content, and the

appropriateness of the content to the assignment; she also tends to give higher grades to those essays she liked or found challenging. She says of the 'Hyacinth' essay, for example,

> And it just made you think, like, and it made you understand, like, the writer's point of views and it was very, very strong…Okay. They started out with Winterson first, which is what the instructions said, and then brought Allison, is that—yeah, Allison, into the writing and like, talks about how they agree and disagree, and it was very, like—it was, like, perfect. Like, there was really no other way to explain it…Like, it was just really, really strong, what they said, and there weren't too many—I don't even think there was a quote from Allison in here, but just the way they brought in her views was—(NSS1).

The student refers to the instructions and, though the writer does not seem to include details from the second reading which violate the assignment, this reader justifies her grade of *good*, even calling the essay "perfect"; it "made her think". Later in her interview, however, the student does point out some grammatical problems and weak transitions, but justifies these as "…lazy typing mistakes…Which happens to everybody". Like the G1.5 students, this student's assessments were highly influenced by her personal response to the content. Only the ESL students' comments suggested that they tried to evaluate the essays somewhat objectively, considering only the assignment requirements and conventions of academic writing.

In summary, the interviewed students indicated differing ideas of what would be evaluated as *good*. The G1.5 students most valued the essays whose content matched their opinions. The ESL students evaluated the essays from the perspective of how well they thought the essays fulfilled the assignment and exhibited linguistic skill. The NS student's evaluation reflected both these positions; while she appreciated essays which she found engaging, she was also aware of elements of organization and assignment goals.

2.4.3 Student Perception of Instructor Grading

In evaluating assessment by both students and instructors, it is important to consider whether students perceive their perception of skillful academic writing matched what their perception of instructor evaluation would be. The majority of students perceived instructor evaluation to be the same as their own. Results appear in Table 2.3. NS and ESL students both exhibited perceived differences from instructors in 33.3% (one out of three NS

	NS (N=1)	**ESL (N=2)**	**Gen 1.5 (N=2)**
'Hyacinth'	I=S	I=S (x2)	I=S (x2)
'Tulip'	I=S	I=S I<S	I=S I>S
'Daffodil'	I<S	I=S I>S	I=S (x2)

Table 2.4: Comparison of student grades and perceived grades of instructors (**I=S** indicates that instructor's perceived score was the same as student score; **I<S** indicates that instructor's perceived score would be lower than student score; and **I>S** indicates that instructor's perceived score would be higher than student score)

evaluations; two out of six ESL evaluations) of their responses. Perhaps surprisingly, G1.5 students assumed instructor scores would differ from their own in only one of the cases; this could suggest a higher level of confidence in their own judgment or a weaker understanding of evaluation/writing criteria.

Contrary to the results reported by Ezer & Sivan (2005), who found that in the majority of cases students predicted that instructor assessment would be lower than theirs, the majority of students in this study (albeit a very small sampling) assumed instructor grading would reflect their own. Students were fairly articulate in their reasoning; for example, when reporting on the 'Hyacinth' essay, a NS student stated,

> I ranked it good, and I also thought, like, a professor or a teacher would as well…Just because, just, like, the introduction was really strong and stated the point, and everything just branched off from that. And tied all together and brought in new ideas that even when I read the story I had never thought about… (NSS1)

Meeting the requirements of the assignment ('Other' category) and beginning with a strong thesis ('Structure & Organization') seemed a consistent reason students gave for assuming similar grading with an instructor. An ESL student evaluating the 'Hyacinth' essay expressed similar reasoning: " I ranked it as good, and I said the professor would rank it as good as well…I think that, like, it makes—it meets the requirement of the professor to, like, compare Ellis and Winterton's [phonetic] essay" (ESL2). Even when students gave a *poor* rating and perceived the instructor would too, it often had to do with a failure to meet the requirements of the assignment. Interestingly, another ESL student, in evaluating the same 'Hyacinth' essay, interpreted the writer as less than successful in fulfilling the requirements of the assignment:

> It was—I realized that it was, like, totally off, because, like, the assignment was asking for, like, for something in particular. There was a comparison going on between—let me see,…Yeah. Like, I made sure—see, I underlined, like, the critical points in the assignment, and then I remember this first student was focusing on Winterson only and not, like, and, like, on certain aspects of the assignment only…So, like, like, he or she was, like, really too focused on something, and like the big picture was not addressed…So that, for me that was a big—That was a big, you know, mistake. So—I, you know, I labeled it—I graded it as poor. And then I thought that, like, if—I think this is the maximum—like, if I give this essay, like, half the grade, I think that would be the maximum that an instructor would give. I think an instructor would probably give less, because, like, even the stuff that I read, the instructor would probably find technical problems in there, because obviously whatever the student wrote was not perfect…So they left out a big part, and then they must've made some mistakes, so I think the instructor would take even more points than I did. (ESL1)

Further details from other interviews suggest that where students perceived their grades and instructors' grades to be the same, the reasons generally had to do with overall content and assignment requirements. No one suggested similar grading based on language or rhetorical features.

In only two instances did students sense that instructors' scores would be lower than theirs. In assessing the 'Daffodil' essay, the NS participant wrote:

> I kind of ranked this—myself I ranked this as between good and fair… And I said that an instructor probably would've said it was fair…I really just liked the way that it was put together. Like, I liked how they analyzed the titles of the thing. Because I would've never thought to analyze just the title, to begin with, but I think that the—a professor would want more in depth into the reading. (NSS1)

The essay appealed to the student in terms of content; she felt the writer took a unique approach to the readings, an approach she would not have considered. However, she viewed this as being incomplete in the eyes of an instructor, whose requirements, she perceived, would not have been met by a discussion of essay titles, which was the focus of 'Daffodil's' argument; thus violating the 'Other' category.

'Tulip's' essay was the only other essay where there was an indication of an instructor's perceived grade to be lower than a student's. An ESL student said the following:

> I ranked it as good, and I said that the professor would rank it as bad…Because I think that this sounds like ESL students... Because—so, like, right here. A person must first ask himself. So this doesn't, like, usually happen in English. Because a person could be either male or female…But in some languages, like, person can have just, like, male gender, like [inaudible]… So that's what I would, like, see as ESL…And sometimes there's, like, a grammar mistake. And at the end, there's something kind of messed up. Or maybe it was the other essay, where, like, there was like a sentence that just didn't make sense, like, with the words and everything…No, I think that the professor would label it as fair because first of the sometimes grammar and then also because it—I think—didn't it say it was supposed to be five pages…And it's just three pages…—and also the font is much, much bigger, so— (ESL2)

There are two interesting elements of this assessment to note. First, the student argues that elements of 'Tulip's' writing suggest the author is not a native speaker, and, while she insists that this alone would not be the reason for a harsher grade from an instructor, she does go on

to point out that the ESL elements include grammatical mistakes and syntactic errors, and these would cause the instructor to lower the grade ('Language' category). This supports others' research data (Ezer & Siva 2005; Leki 1995a) which suggest that L2 writers are judged more harshly by instructors than L1 writers. However, as it is only one student giving one assessment, it does not prove the above supposition but rather suggests more research into this perception is needed. Additionally, this student suggests that mechanics, such as page length and font size, would be factors in the grading of an essay. She does not point to any content, organizational, or rhetorical features as reasons for an instructor's lower grade.

The second interesting element to note here is more subtle. In the first line of the above quote, the student says that she ranks the essay as *good*, but thinks an instructor would rank it as *bad*; later on in the quote she says that the instructor would label it as *fair*. This suggests a view that *fair* is virtually equivalent to *poor* and might explain why the students in general did not assign many *fair* grades.

Contrary to any research I found, two students – one ESL and one G1.5 – suggested that at times instructors might give a higher grade than students. For example, in the case of the 'Daffodil' essay, the ESL student, who rated the essay as *poor*, wrote in his comments that "I wouldn't be surprised if an instructor gave this essay a fair grade (if s/he was lenient)" [parentheses are student's] (ESL1). The only instance of a G1.5 student's assessment differing from her perception of an instructor's grading was in the case of 'Tulip's' essay where a G1.5 student graded the essay as *fair* and suggested the instructor would grade it as *good*. Her written comment states, "Although the essay shows subsequent details, there is an abundant use of author opinions and paraphrases" (GEN2). When asked to explain, the student reported that she thought the student writer incorporated too much personal opinion and thereby violated the assignment; however, the writer also used a lot of detail and quotes from the reading which would have swayed the instructor to diminish the value of other

perceived errors. In other words, like the ESL student, this student believed that an instructor would be lenient on penalizing the writer for certain errors because other relevant elements were present in the essay. This does reflect comments from the Ezer & Sivan (2005) report where they state "…Israeli-Arab students actually believed that the instructors were not strict enough; they felt that the Israeli college instructors were too tolerant of language errors, thereby slowing their acquisition of Hebrew and consequent integration into the mainstream Israeli society" (126). Again, while the population of the two studies as well as the number of participants differs greatly, this comment suggests that research into the area of perception/ assessment is warranted.

In summary, most of the students felt their grading of the essays would match instructor evaluation. Some students expressed concern about instructors grading lower because of language markers indicating they were NNS. Surprisingly, two NNS students also felt that some instructors might overlook some writing problems and give higher grades if the content was relevant to the assignment.

2.4.4 Instructor Evaluation

Instructor assessment of the essays differed from student assessment, particularly in the case of the 'Hyacinth' and 'Daffodil' essays (see Table 2.4). While three students evaluated the 'Hyacinth' essay as *good*, only one instructor gave it that same grade. Most instructors graded 'Hyacinth' as *fair-poor*, making such comments as

- "confusing…overstuffed paragraphs…dropped quotes[26]" (ICO2);
- "lacking argument…opinion" (ICO1);
- "…feels like an early draft to me" (ICS1);
- "it did seem like it was less an essay about the two books and more a string of thoughts sort of inspired

[26] 'Dropped quote' is a term used in many writing handbooks (Hacker 2004:462) to refer to the insertion of a quote into a text without introducing and/or discussing it. The quotation is not properly integrated into the text.

> by the two books that focused as much on the author as the books themselves…This was maybe me being harsh, but when I looked over it, I didn't find any quotes from the Allison text… so I think if this was an essay from a class that I was teaching, a paper that was submitted to a class that I was teaching that was a comparative project, I would probably have the suspicion that maybe the person who wrote it hadn't read the essays and so…(ISA2)

All of these instructors noted lack of organization, use of personal opinion, 'dropped quotes', and not addressing the assignment as reasons for a low rating, referring to several categories from Table 2.2: 'Content', 'Critical Thinking', 'Language'. Only one instructor, a subject area instructor, considered the 'Hyacinth' essay as *good*, and in fact labeled it as *Good +*, saying that, despite the fact that the essay did not fully fulfill the assignment, it was "well-written, well-organized; nice use of analogy/personal experience to demonstrate points" (ISA1). So, while the majority of instructors felt the use of personal examples as inappropriate, this instructor disagreed. Additionally, all other instructors noted that the student failed to address the assignment ('Other' category), causing the other subject area instructor to give this essay a *poor* rating; however this instructor was willing to overlook that completely in assigning a grade if she felt the content was rich.

Similarly, there was a difference between student ratings of the 'Tulip' essay and the instructor ratings. All instructors graded this essay as *fair-poor*, with the most common comments stating that the student overused quotes; that the quotes were not always clear, explained, or relevant; and that the essay was vague. A representative comment states,

> there was no stance taken. It adds anything to what the authors were writing. It's like the person's allegiance was to, was to kind of include as many citations with a kind of restating them or just skipping on as if they spoke for themselves, so I didn't feel like there was an author's presence in terms of the stance or position to the key terms (ICS1).

Most of the instructors commented on the large font size used by the student as relevant to their grade consideration and also noted the writer's use of *Ms* each time an author was

referenced, rather than using the more common format of last name only. In fact, one subject area instructor in her written comments gave the grade and just below it the list of reasons for that grade. This instructor's first reason listed is "ESL status revealed …. (Use of *Ms*., some wording problems)" (ISA1). This suggests that her fair grade was partially determined by the fact that she interpreted linguistic cues ('Language') as signs of a NNS and that influenced her grade downward. When delicately approached on this matter, the instructor denied any association of low grades with NNS. However, given how her comments presented themselves, this could support the suggested interpretation of student participants that L2 writers are graded more harshly. Ivanič (1998), in fact, argues that readers do make judgments about people based on perceptions of their academic writing. She states that "…However much we try to be 'impersonal' about … [marking student papers], the quality of the work, the choice of topic, what is written about it, and the discourses adopted in the course of writing: all these convey to us an impression of the writer, whether we are conscious of it or not" (1998:101). The comments by this instructor certainly suggest that the possibility of unconscious factors may play a role in evaluation and warrants closer investigation.

The essay exhibiting the widest difference in grading was the 'Daffodil' essay. Unlike the student evaluators, 100% of instructors gave this essay a *good* rating. Though almost all instructors noted that this writer did not include one of the required readings in his essay ('Other' category), they all were still willing to give him a high rating "based on his ideas and fluidity" (ICO2). In fact, all instructors noted poor formatting in terms of citations, problems with paragraph organization, lack of syntactic variety, and more. However, their comments on this essay include phrases like "good analogies, engaged text" (ICO1); "complex issues and arguments" (ICO2); "Closer readings, clearer comparisons" (ICS1), and more. Clearly, this writer engaged the instructor-readers who were willing to overlook issues

they did not overlook with other essays because they felt his ideas were clear and thoughtful; several instructors, in fact, indicated that, if they were ranking the essays, 'Daffodil' would have been "best of show" (ICS1).

Results of the instructor evaluation analysis shows that there is a lack of continuity between what students believe *good* writing to be and what instructors look for when evaluating student writing. Though this study only includes a few participants in a small college setting, the differences among instructors' evaluations and comments suggest reason for students to be confused. The plethora of considerations different evaluators use across disciplines can be land mines for student writers, from the instructor who declined participation because of pedagogical differences, to the subject area instructor who preferred personal experience as evidence, to instructors' individual *pet peeves* in writing [e.g. "…I see using contractions, which drive me crazy…" (ISA1); "…lack of page citations identification of what pages things come from, which I find annoying…" (ICS1)]. Moreover, there seems to be a lack of consistency in using evaluative criteria; so that the student who diligently tries to apply the conventions, as 'Tulip' did in using many citations and following a fairly standard format, can still be penalized because of linguistic idiosyncrasies and lack of a strong authorial stance – something hard enough to develop for apprentice writers, let alone novice ones (John 2005:280-283; Peck MacDonald 1994:187; Thompson 2001:73-75). On the other hand, students who write papers perceived to be interesting, imaginative, and/or original can be rewarded with a *good* grade, despite mechanical, grammatical, and other errors, as in the case of the 'Daffodil' essay.

Even more unnerving is perhaps the perception of some L2 students, that L2 writing is graded more harshly; this may have a kernel of truth to it, albeit perhaps unconscious on the part of the instructor. When linguistic difficulties cause the reader to be unsure of the meaning of the writing, most reasonable students and instructors alike would agree that

assessment is difficult at best. However, when language skills are keen enough to make a point clearly, using linguistic cues to judge student writers as native or nonnative and making that decision part of the essay evaluation can be problematic, and, at my institution at least, warrants further investigation.

2.4.5 Native Speaker or Nonnative Speaker?

The final question I asked participants during the interview process was to assess whether the writers of the essays were NS or NNS of English. I did not indicate to participants beforehand that I would be asking this question; I wanted their immediate, unstudied answers along with the reasons for those answers. As Table 2.5 indicates, students and instructors were fairly similar in their judgments. One composition instructor, however, could not decide how she would label 'Hyacinth' and 'Tulip'. When pressed, she stated that she could make arguments on either side for both. She suggested that 'Hyacinth's' use of personal pronouns and examples suggested to her a NNS; however the writer's facility with language seemed to contradict that. Similarly with 'Tulip', she felt the clear organization of the essay indicated a NS, but certain phrases and the writer's use of some inappropriate quotes suggested a NNS author. As I could not ascertain a preference one way or the other for

	'Hyacinth'	**'Tulip'**	**'Daffodil'**
NS	NS	NNS	NS
ESL	NNS NS	NNS NS	NS (x2)
1.5	NNS (x2)	NNS NS	NNS NS
Total Student (N=5)	NNS = 3 NS = 2	NNS = 3 NS = 2	NNS = 1 NS = 4
Composition	NS Undecided	NS Undecided	NS (x2)
Composition/Subject Area	NS	NS	NS
Subject Area	NS (x2)	NNS (x2)	NS (x2)
Total Instructor (N=5)	NNS = 0 NS = 4 Undecided- 1	NNS = 2 NS = 2 Undecided – 1	NNS = 0 NS = 5

Table 2.5: Perception of essays as written by NNS or NS

this instructor, I decided not to guess an interpretation for her and therefore indicated her judgment in these two cases as 'undecided'.

Where students and instructors alike judged the writer to be nonnative, the reasons given were grammatical or mechanical in nature. As mentioned above, several instructors and the NS student determined 'Tulip' to be a NNS because of her use of *Ms*, which struck the NS readers as awkward. NNS students who labeled 'Tulip' as NNS did not point to the use of a title, but to her use of pronouns and her large-sized font. Surprisingly, the only person to judge 'Daffodil' to be NNS was a G1.5 student who did so because of his grammar:

> You can tell that specifically the English is now a second language, most of them, the writing is like, really interesting, the people who read. Like myself and I, I'll— as soon as I looked at it, and even my second language English is really not that good, but I can tell this perfect. The way they know how to write, by this introduce and conclusion, I can tell really pretty good job they did it (GEN1).

In other words, this student felt 'Daffodil' was a NNS because his grammar was "perfect" ('Language') and his organization of ideas indicated a learned pattern ('Structure & Organization'). This keen observation on the student's part is supported in some literature, particularly in Chang & Swales (1999:146-147), where the researchers report on NNS "…confused by the discrepancies…found between prescriptive advice contained in writing manuals and textbooks and the actual language usages detected in …academic reading" (146).

This same participant judged 'Tulip's' essay to be written by a NS because "this paper is unorganized. The first paragraph, it doesn't attack the reading. He and she didn't deduce with the paper, introduce the paper. A lot of running on sentences. It was difficult to read and very wordy" (GEN1). For this student, grammatical errors and less-than-clear organization is endemic to NS student writers.

The only instructor involved in the study with ESL teaching experience judged all three essays to be written by native speakers of English because he "…didn't feel like there were usage things that were nonstandard…In other words, it seemed very typical of my students in English 15" (ICS1). This instructor said he did not notice any "classic omissions of definite articles or…verb endings" (ICS1) which would have been signals to him that any of these writers were NNS. The only essay to be declared written by a NS by nearly 100% of participants was the essay by 'Daffodil'. As mentioned above, various readers commented on problems with this text, on grammatical and organizational issues, but the content discussion of this essay engaged the majority of the readers into giving it a *good* grade and ranking it as being written by a NS.

These results are particularly interesting because, in fact, the 'Daffodil' essay was written by a G1.5 writer. The student writer of this essay is a native Spanish speaker who arrived in the U.S. at a very young age and went to New York City public schools. At the beginning of the ESL composition course, he expressed concern about passing as he found writing academic work very difficult and was not confident in his skills. The 'Tulip' essay was written by an international, ESL student from Pakistan who had gone to an English-language school in Pakistan for many years. She was very confident about her writing skills, though her ESL status seemed obvious to most of the readers. The 'Hyacinth' essay was written by a NS of English who was helping to tutor ESL students as part of his honors class in Psychology. While I was careful to choose essays that represented competent writing from the point of view of basic expression, there was sufficient evidence in each essay to mark the essays as written by NS or NNS. In the 'Hyacinth' essay, for example, the author refers to his experiences as an ESL tutor and seeing the readings through new eyes; however, none of the readers cited this content as evidence for his being a NS. 'Daffodil's' essay contained some significant grammatical and lexical issues (such as sentence fragments, overuse of

pronouns, vague nouns, faulty pronoun references, missed paragraph breaks, mixed constructions, punctuation errors) which might have marked him as an inexperienced writer at best; yet most of these flaws were not pointed out by student or instructor reviewers; rather, the content and particularly his strategy of opening his essay with a quote from Picasso seemed to engage readers immediately and therefore they overlooked significant errors. These observations seem to support conclusions made above that evaluators will often forgive errors in favor of rich content.

2.5 Summary and Conclusions

2.5.1 Summary of Assessment Study

Though this study includes only a small sampling of participants, results show some differences between student and instructor assessment. What constitutes *good* writing was not consistent or clear cut. In light of the questions which guided this study, results can be summed up as follows:

1. What elements of student essays are valued, evaluated, and/or overlooked by relevant readers?
    - Instructors often value rich content over elements of language or attention to assignment criteria.
    - Students often focus more on issues of language and organization and focus little on conscious development of rhetorical structures in order to develop their essays.

2. How do students and instructors evaluate *good* student writing?
    - Instructor evaluation can be inconsistent.
    - Instructors will often overlook mechanical and grammatical problems as well as assignment requirements if the student paper has thoughtful content.
    - Individual instructors have *pet peeves* which can affect grading.
    - Students are concerned with meeting assignment requirements.
    - Students focus on issues of organization and mechanics.
    - Grading rubrics are not often adhered to by graders or by students in interpreting grades.

3. Do we (students and instructors, NS and NNS) all have the same standards when we evaluate writing?

- There seem to be differences in evaluation criteria among composition instructors and between composition and subject area instructors, where oftentimes assignment requirements will be overlooked if the instructor judges the content to be interesting. Similarly, mechanical, grammatical, and other structures which strike an instructor as problematic can obscure the content and result in a lowered grade for the student.

- This inconsistency can send confusing messages to the students on what instructors want to see in writing.

- A *fair* grade equals a *poor* grade to students; they see evaluation in extremes rather than a process. That is, for them a grade represents an end product which is either acceptable or not. They do not see a mid-level grade as an invitation to learn from "errors" in their writing in order to improve the next assignment. Rather, a mid-level grade is interpreted as a failure on the current assignment.

2.5.2 Conclusions Regarding G1.5 Writing

The following tentative conclusions regarding G1.5 writing and writers can be gleaned from the above study:

1. G1.5 students indicated the fewest differences in grading and perceived grading. This suggests that they are either more confident in their assessment of writing, or have a less clear view of abilities/skills.

2. G1.5 students respond to content in terms of agreement or disagreement. In other words, their personal connection to the subject matters more to them than linguistic features.

3. G1.5 and ESL student evaluators suggested that L2 writers are judged more harshly than NS student writers. Some instructor comments might support this assertion, though not at a conscious level.

4. G1.5 students perceive *perfect* writing to be a sign of a NNS speaker who has learned rules of language. Their experience of extensive schooling and living with NS students makes them aware that we are not perfect speakers. This level of perception can only come through extensive contact and suggests a depth of knowledge about their environment, and suggests that *perfect* grammar is not a concern for them in terms of expressing themselves clearly.

5. G1.5 student writing shares some features of both NS and ESL student writing, but if the content is rich, language level errors are deemed irrelevant. Also, the reverse seems to be true - if the content is not rich, language level errors can be used to lower a student grade.

Having a picture of how students view academic writing (i.e. what they think constitutes *good* writing) as well as their attitudes towards evaluation, we can examine further larger bodies of data in order to test for those lexico-grammatical and semantic features in their essays which would support their reported attitudes and knowledge of writing. Therefore the next step in determining what features mark G1.5 student essays is to look at larger segments of collected data in order to ascertain trends and patterns. To that end, Chapter 3 will begin a discussion of collected corpus data.

CHAPTER 3:
CORPUS STUDY:
IDENTIFYING LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL FEATURES IN G1.5 ESSAYS

"…Despite all the hardships along the way, immigrants work and study hard in order to get their college diploma which is equivalent to educational passport in life…"(gen0082rp)

3.1 Introduction and Rationale

In order to elaborate on the nature of self-representation in writing, to identify those features which represent G1.5 students, and to determine if attitudes to evaluation matched production, a corpus-based study is implemented here. To analyze the language produced by G1.5 students in writing, three corpora were created, made up of the first year composition assignments of three groups of students: G1.5, ESL and NS students. While self-representation in text has often been examined in individual and case study research (Hebb 2000, Ivanič 1998, Ivanič & Camps 2001, John 2005), a corpus approach was utilized here in order to look at a larger body of data representing G1.5 students with differing L1s and with varying amounts of time spent in U.S. schools. Examining features of *voice* via corpus methods may seem contradictory, since voice represents individual expression and a corpus utilizes large amounts of data in order to make linguistic generalizations. In fact, Ivanič (2004:223) suggests that "computer-aided language study is limited to this [narrowest] aspect of language, since turning texts into a machine-readable form inevitably divests them of all but their linguistic substance." However, since voice is realized through linguistic features, it is exactly that "linguistic substance" that must be analyzed in order to identify voice features in the texts. Therefore, rather than considering the corpus data as merely assemblages of mechanically-linked features, looking at the frequency of linguistic features in the corpora will hopefully lead to generalized and thematic observations. That is, the corpus here is intended to mark for us those elements of language which suggest a unique voice among a

specific group of students in order to better understand their fundamental distinctiveness in expression. The aim is to unearth those linguistic trends that appear more salient in the G1.5 writings overall, as compared to the other two groups; then, Chapter 7 will test these generalizations and trends against case studies of three individual essays to determine if the corpus data analysis is reasonable. Analysis of the corpus data will begin by identifying those semantic and grammatical features which occurred more frequently in the G1.5 corpus than in the other two corpora. In order to identify those features which might be distinctive to G1.5 students, significant differences among the three corpora need to be considered.

In order to determine if the G1.5 writers represent a unique group of students linguistically with needs differing from traditional international learners of English and/or NS students, it was necessary to examine the data for those linguistic features which researchers and instructors may find in an ESL or a NS corpus to see if those same features presented themselves with similar frequency in a G1.5 student corpus; conversely, those features which mark the three groups as different can tell us much about the way the G1.5 students use language in a significantly different way from their ESL and NS counterparts. The research questions, then, that drive the corpus study portion of this thesis are:

1) What linguistic features appear more salient in the writing of G1.5 students versus ESL and/or NS students?

2) Do the lexico-grammatical features that emerge function in the same way across the three corpora?

3) Does the identity of G1.5 students reveal itself in the linguistic features, or does something else emerge? How do they position themselves in an act of writing?

Hopefully, an examination of these data can reveal generalizations about the writing features of G1.5 students, illustrate for us the needs of these students, and suggest how we can help them move beyond the novice stage of writing.

For organizational purposes, this chapter will focus on the presentation of the corpus data only, with detailed discussion of salient features regarding self-representation appearing in Chapters 4, 5 and 6. Because Module II included an extensive rationale of corpus-driven research, particularly in regards to learners, I will not include a separate literature review section here; however, relevant research will be incorporated in the data discussion sections. In Section 3.2, I will detail the methodology used in creating the three corpora, including a discussion of my choice to focus on findings regarding grammatical and semantic features. Section 3.3 reports frequency and keyword list results. Section 3.4 will discuss those lexico-grammatical features which were found to be more salient in the essays of the G1.5 learners than in the other two corpora based on an analysis of part-of-speech tagging. Section 3.5 will report salient differences that appeared only between G1.5 students and ESL students, while Section 3.6 will do the same for marked features in the G1.5 data compared to the NS data. Section 3.7 will sum up chapter conclusions in preparation for detailed analysis of specific linguistic realizations as they pertain to Ideational Positioning (Chapter 4), Interpersonal Positioning (Chapter 5) and further discussion of Textual Positioning (Chapter 6).

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Participants

The students who participated in this study were all first year university students in either their first or second semester at Penn State Erie (PSU Erie), a branch campus of The Pennsylvania State University, located in the city of Erie, PA, a small urban area with a metro population of approximately 200,000. Student population at PSU Erie is approximately 8000 undergraduate and postgraduate students. NS students come primarily from northwest Pennsylvania, as well as New York State and Ohio, though a small percentage comes from other parts of the United States. G1.5 students come primarily from the greater Erie area;

Erie is a tagged as a refugee center by the U.S. Department of Immigration and therefore has a vibrant immigrant community. International (ESL) students number about 200, about 3% of the student population, and come from all over the world, particularly Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Middle East. They are required to score a minimum of 525 on the TOEFL test in order to be admitted to the university.

Before soliciting participation by any student, I was required to conform to the ethics standards and practices of The Pennsylvania State University. I was awarded internal review board approval and created a consent form and questionnaires which all participating students were required to sign. Please see Appendix A for a copy of approved consent forms and Appendix C for copies of the approved questionnaires. Questionnaires and essays throughout the project were collected from all students who agreed to participate and signed release forms. Participation was voluntary and students were given no remuneration for participation in the study.

The G1.5 and ESL student participants were all registered in a class called *ESL 015: Academic Writing 2 for ESL* Students, during the spring 2005, fall 2005, fall 2006, and spring 2007 semesters.[27] This class is intended to be a freshman academic English composition course for students who are not native speakers. The course is a credit course, meaning that it holds the same weight on the student's transcript as *ENGL 015: Rhetoric and Composition*, the traditional freshman English course in which all the NS participants were registered. The G1.5/ESL writers also received supplemental private tutoring once per week with a trained ESL tutor and additional grammar work.

Sections of *ENGL 015: Rhetoric and Composition* during the same semesters as listed above were recruited to participate in this research. I was the instructor for the *ENGL 015* NS

[27] The pilot study in Module II used data from spring 2006 and fall 2005 only. This study includes data from the two additional terms. Details will be discussed below.

section during the Fall 2005; the NS sections for all other semesters were instructed by colleagues who agreed to participate in this research by teaching from the same syllabus, incorporating the same readings in their classes, and assigning the same writing prompts to their students as I was using in the G1.5/ESL section of the class. As with the G1.5/ESL population, all NS students in these classes were asked to participate.

The number of G1.5 and ESL writer-participants is almost equal, while the NS participants are slightly more than double the NNS participants. Because the NS population is larger, a greater number of their essays were collected. In addition, the NS group was considered to be the control group, meaning that their writing is believed to be representative of first year university student writers.

Students who take the *ESL 15* class are considered to be high intermediate-to-advanced learners of English. As reported in Module I, G1.5 students are U.S. residents or citizens and most graduated from U.S. high schools; therefore they are not required to have any language testing prior to admittance to the university, and legally cannot be identified as a NNS on any of their paperwork. Admission to *ESL 015* is voluntary for students, though highly recommended for international students and for those students who are identified by their advisors during orientation weeks as nonnative speakers of English. Rarely will these students self-select into an ESL class, as they consider themselves as American as any of the NS students. Those who do choose to participate in the ESL class tend to, on average, struggle less and have greater success and retention at university[28].

It is important at this point to define how G1.5 students were identified for this study. As mentioned above, legal limitations do not allow admissions staff to identify those students who were not born in the U.S. but hold resident status or U.S. passports; therefore these students must be willing to identify themselves as NNS; this often does not happen for a

[28] Please refer to Module I for details on retention study.

variety of reasons. In addition, as reported in Module I, the decision of whom to include in the G1.5 student group is problematic since identifying these students can include many variables, such as length of time in the U.S., years in U.S. schools, years in home country schools, years of formal English study, home language, age, etc. For purposes of this study, I made the decision to include only those students who had been living in the U.S. for a minimum of four years and had graduated from a U.S. secondary school, or those students who had resided in the U.S. for a minimum of 10 years and had no formal U.S. schooling. These parameters are more stringent than those used by many other researchers[29]; however, for purposes of this study I wanted to be sure students had ample exposure to English either via time or academic setting in order to be able to reasonably analyze apparent generalizations and trends.

All students, international or not, admitted to the university are required to take a writing diagnostic test prior to registering for classes. This test, done on-line at a time chosen by the student, is then scored and the student is placed in a section of English composition based on his/her score. There are three possible class levels – Basic English, for those whose score suggests remedial work is needed; Rhetoric and Composition (*ENGL 015*), considered the appropriate level for beginning university work and the level used for this research; or Honors English, an advanced reading/writing course. Though the accuracy of the placement test is questionable and it is believed that many students do not actually take the test themselves (testing is done on the *honor system*), it is the only measurement we currently have in place at this university. All students who participated in this research were placed into *ESL/ENGL 015* classes based on this testing. Table 3.1 provides some basic demographic

[29] Many of the published studies reviewed in Chapter 1 and in Module I have variable criteria for labelling a student as G1.5; at the International TESOL 2008 conference, the majority of papers presented on G1.5 students considered two years residency in the U.S. as sufficient.

	G1.5 STUDENTS	ESL STUDENTS	NS STUDENTS
Total # of Participants in Corpus Study	24	25	83
Female Students	10	8	28
Male Students	14	17	55
Average Age (years)	21.32	18.24	18.73
Median Length of time in U.S.	88.96 months (7.41 years)	11.06 months	N/A
Median # of years in U.S. schools (pre-university)	4.93	0	all
Median # of years of formal English language classes taken in home country	2.83	7.65	N/A

Table 3.1: Demographic data of student participants

information about the three student groups from whom data was collected for creation of these corpora. The demographic information was collected from questionnaires administered to the students at the start of each semester.

As is indicated in Table 3.1, the average age for the G1.5 students is approximately three years higher than either the ESL or NS groups. This is partly due to their missing primary and/or secondary school time because of immigration/refugee issues, having to repeat grades due to language issues, or having to work to help support their families before being able to attend university. Seven of the G1.5 students had no English language training before coming to the U.S. The average length of time for these learners to have been in the U.S. was 7.4 years, with an average of 4.9 years in U.S. (pre-university) schools.

The international, or ESL, students were the youngest overall group, with an average age of 18.2 years. All of the ESL students had formal English language and EAP classes in their home countries for an average amount of time of 7.6 years. Their average amount of time in the U.S. was 11.06 months.

The NS writer-participants averaged an age of 18.7 years. They were primarily from the Northwestern Pennsylvania region, though a few came from other areas of Pennsylvania, New York, and Ohio; there was even one student originally from Scotland. Only one student identified himself as bilingual (English/Italian). None of the NS students indicated that they had formal English grammar or rhetoric classes prior to entering university. Most students indicated that grammar had not been taught since (on average) seventh grade (about 12 years old) and that high school English classes consisted of reading Shakespeare plays and some classic novels, and writing opinion or response papers. Only about 50% of the students indicated that they had learned to produce a research paper complete with citations and a bibliography.

The academic majors for these students, as well as the G1.5 and ESL students, spanned a wide variety of disciplines including computer science, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, management information systems, business, management, marketing, history, political science, psychology, education and English.

L1	G1.5	ESL
Albanian	2	
Arabic	4	1
Bosnian	2	
Cantonese	1	3
Czech		1
Dinka	1	
Guajarati		1
Japanese	1	2
Korean	2	6
Mandarin		4
Somali	1	
Spanish	4	4
Turkish		2
Ukrainian	4	
Urdu		1
Vietnamese	2	

Table 3.2: L1s of G1.5 & ESL writer-participants

The L1 groups represented by the G1.5 and ESL participants can be seen in Table 3.2. Because of the wide variety of first languages, as well as second or other languages, the purpose of the corpus study section of this thesis was to look for general trends and patterns

in the data. Therefore issues of contrastive analysis or L1 interference will not be considered here. The variety of language backgrounds, however, does represent the issue of how many possible individual differences may apply to L2 learning and what a slippery slope it is in trying to determine identifying features of these students. Some aspects of this will be discussed in Chapter 7 detailing the case studies.

3.2.2 The Essays and Writing Prompts

Both the NNS and NS composition classes are designed to expose students to the kinds of writing they will be expected to produce at university, no matter their major area of study. For this study, the readings and essay prompts for all groups were identical. As stated above, I was the instructor for all sections of the G1.5/ESL class and for the NS class during the fall 2005 term; colleagues taught the NS classes during the additional terms during which the study ran. In those classes, I was allowed to survey the NS students and collect copies of their essays. I had access to their on-line course work and sat in on several class sessions to ensure that the classes were receiving similar instruction in terms of lectures, group work in class, homework assignments, journal writing, etc.

The readings and writing prompts for these courses generally expose students to nonfiction and fiction writing with which they are not familiar. Reading is stressed as much as writing; lessons are generally focused around learning to read actively and critically and to write essays in response to/relating to the readings. The writing prompts were designed to complement discussion of various readings and were intended to present the students with various writing challenges. Students are given five essay assignments throughout the term and each assignment builds on previous assignments; in this way, students are expected to become more sophisticated thinkers and more experienced writers throughout the term. For example, assigned readings are the basis for an exercise in library research which prepares them to create an annotated bibliography and which serves as the starting point for their

research project. Each essay assignment consists of three drafts, peer reviews, and, in the case of G1.5 and ESL students, tutoring sessions for each draft. Final drafts are expected to be 3-8 pages long (1000-5000 words) depending on the assignment, with proper formatting, citations, etc. required. Explicit instruction and discussion occur in class prior to assigning the essays. Different rhetorical patterns are addressed and assigned throughout the term. The specific prompts and rhetorical lessons for all assignments as well as the number of essays collected per prompt are given in Appendix D.

3.2.3 Corpora Description and Size

Essays were collected on-line and in hard copy formats and downloaded into both *WordSmith Tools 4.0* (Scott 2004) and *WMatrix 2* (Rayson 2007) for collation and corpus creation. Reasons for using two concordance programs will be discussed below. The relevant statistics for each corpus appears in Table 3.3.

Corpus Data	G1.5	ESL	NS
# of Essays/texts	114	94	274
# of tokens (running words) in text	110,307	96,345	303,236
# of tokens used for word list	109,015	95,207	300,565
# of types (distinct words)	7084	7274	12, 364
Type/token ratio (TTR)	6.50	7.64	4.11
Standardized TTR(standardized to 1,000)	35.84	38.06	36.99

Table 3.3: Corpus data by group

The statistics in Table 3.3 show that the size of the three corpora are smaller than ideal in order to obtain results that might be generalizable across a wider population; however, enough data is represented to indicate trends and features which warrant investigation. The statistics also indicate the differing sizes of the corpora; the NS corpus was deliberately planned to include at least twice the number of documents as each of the other two since this was the intended control group and a larger sampling of documents

was desired in order to achieve a more representative sampling. The chart does indicate that the NS corpus has a considerably smaller type/token ration than either of the other two groups, though the overall size of the documents based on standardized ratios is comparable for both the NS and G1.5 corpora. The ESL corpus data appears to suggest that, of the three groups, this group produced the shortest documents with the highest ratio of distinct words. Details of these statistics will be referred to when discussing frequency of particular features.

Early drafts of the G1.5, ESL, and NS essays were collected in order to be able to look at patterns, improvement and eventually diachronic changes. Though these drafts were included in the corpora in Module II, they were excluded from the data in Module III so that any redundancy in texts which might affect frequencies would be eliminated. Though students would have made revisions and corrections to later drafts, it appeared more appropriate to rely on the final rather than earlier versions of their papers for several reasons:

1. First and second drafts were often very short, undeveloped writings; first drafts were often little more than a paragraph in length. Hinkel's (2002) corpus study on L2 writing does employ single draft texts of about 250 words each where students were asked to produce a timed writing sample. Biber (1990) however argues that for a sample to provide a reliable count of features, a minimum of 1000-word samples should be considered. Because I was trying to find identifying features in these texts, longer sample documents seemed a more appropriate choice.

2. Because my focus herein is not on error analysis per se or on diachronic changes in writing, single draft copies of one assignment seemed more appropriate.

3. I could find no literature on the merits or demerits of using revised student drafts in compiling corpora. Therefore I considered that, in compiling professional corpora, the professional articles, journalistic pieces, speeches, etc., which would be included in a corpus, would all require revision and often multiple drafts by their authors before being considered for publication. In addition, before evaluating student work, instructors often, especially in writing classes, require students to produce multiple drafts before grading a final work. Therefore, it seemed reasonable to accept final, revised drafts of essays to build my corpora. Though the final drafts reflect changes made by the students after comments from instructors and tutors, what is left is representative of the students' own voices and the linguistic choices the students made in order to express themselves. Therefore the final drafts are genuine reflections of the students' representations of their ideas, without the superficial errors which would have been made in earlier drafts.

3.2.4 Methods of Data Analysis

A corpus-based approach to language analysis presents an opportunity for both quantitative and qualitative investigation, comparison of one corpus against another, leading to an interpretation of data. As a starting point for investigation of language use by G1.5 students, it seemed prudent to begin by investigating a large body of their work in order to look for patterns and trends. To do this, I relied on a combination of software tools: *WordSmith Tools 4.0* (Scott 2004) and *WMatrix 2* (Rayson 2007), as previously mentioned.

The corpora were first examined using the keywords function and concordance program of *WordSmith Tools. WordSmith Tools* was chosen because of its wide acceptance in the discipline, its ease and accessibility, and its technical support features. The keywords lists, comparing the G1.5 essays with the NS essays and comparing the G1.5 essays with the ESL essays, ranked types in terms of their comparative distribution across the two corpora. Based on these rankings, I carried out investigations of various word classes as well as lexical word groups in order to decide on the specific items on which to report. In each case, the computer program supplied quantitative data for the frequency of the search item. Because I wanted the computer data to inform my research items, I attempted to isolate regularities and repeated patterns of use. Frequency counts served as pointers to areas where more detailed examination of certain examples seemed warranted; that is, the frequency counts led to a closer examination of individual words and structures. Concordance lists were run in order to view these items in context and compare lists among corpora for environments and variation in use (based on grammatical function and/or meaning). Concordance lists were also used to verify frequency counts in order to present accurate data. For example, use of third person pronouns, *s/he*, in the non native speaker corpora were checked for accurate and appropriate referent before giving a final word count for each in each corpus. While the data analysis does not focus on error analysis per se, determinations on whether the use of certain features

was valid to discuss first needed to be examined in light of how the features appear in any given corpus. In addition, it was found that a broader environment than generally appears in a concordance list (of approximately 10-20 words or so per line) was more valuable for an accurate analysis of data. For this reason and due to space limitations of the thesis, concordance lists do not appear in the text of this thesis, but sample concordance lists appear in Appendix F. Specific examples from the corpora do appear in the text frequently, however, to demonstrate the feature being discussed.

I also employed *WMatrix 2* which allowed me do part-of-speech and semantic tagging which was extremely useful and time-saving in terms of seeing patterns, in comparing log likelihoods and in identifying trends. Because *WordSmith Tools* is the more familiar program, I checked all data numbers and frequency lists therein in order to verify the accuracy of the data I was using. I found frequency lists to differ between the two only in those instances where *WMatrix2* would *chunk* together two or more words (always accurately, I found) as a single entity, include some spelling/typos (again always accurately) into proper frequency lists, or similar functions. Rayson (2007) claims that *WMatrix 2* has a 97% accuracy rate in its tagging; while I did not verify percentages, I did find it extremely accurate and will indicate below those places where I found examples tagged for part-of-speech or semantic category inaccurately. Therefore, the features discussed below, unless otherwise mentioned, all appear to have significant difference from features in the corresponding corpora, based primarily on the computational analyses carried out in *WMatrix2*. That is, I am discussing only those features which have a log likelihood value of above 7.0, indicating significant over-representation of the feature in one corpus (Rayson 2007). *WMatrix2* calculates relative frequency values as follows:

> **Log-likelihood cut-off values**:
> For 1 degree of freedom (where you are comparing 2 corpora,) the log-likelihood critical values are as follows:

- 95th percentile; 5% level; $p < 0.05$; critical value = 3.84
- 99th percentile; 1% level; $p < 0.01$; critical value = 6.63
- 99.9th percentile; 0.1% level; $p < 0.001$; critical value = 10.83
- 99.99th percentile; 0.01% level; $p < 0.0001$; critical value = 15.13

Thus my method involves identifying what may be significant regularities and over-representation by one group in keyword/frequency lists, part-of-speech tagged results, and semantically tagged categories. Then, contextual information was analyzed "by hand" to offer an account of the way(s) these items operate in the texts and among the writer groups. That is, the general frequency statistics represent frequency of features and grammatical items, and include some non-differentiated uses of grammatical items and uses which might be considered as errors or as non-standard uses, but which were included in the frequency counts because of the way these features operated in the relevant texts and were used by the various writer groups. Granger (1993), Woods et al (1986) and others warn against simply using frequency numbers or critical values as the sum total of computational analysis; the researcher must also qualitatively examine the highlighted data in order to make reasonable interpretations.

Examining data both quantitatively and qualitatively herein produced answers to the research questions above. As will be demonstrated below, lexico-grammatical and rhetorical study indicated that G1.5 students use more features of a spoken register of English and more elements of narrative writing in their essays than do either the NS or ESL students; pragmatic analysis of the data also suggests that, when writing different genres of essays, G1.5 students seem to apply genre conventions with less frequency than the other two student groups.

3.3 Keyword Lists

As mentioned above, keyword lists in *WordSmith Tools* and *WMatrix 2* virtually matched, except for a few minor differences. For the sake of consistency, I will use the *WMatrix 2* lists herein. Table 3.4 indicates the first 20 words in the list comparing G1.5 essays to NS essays,

Word	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Relative frequency	# of occurrences in NS corpus	Relative frequency	Log Likelihood (LL>7.0)/ Overuse
Allison	287	0.28	301	0.11	131.43
she	557	0.54	805	0.28	130.31
Baklava	45	0.04	0	0.00	119.17
art	1105	1.08	2034	0.72	112.05
her	416	0.41	573	0.20	110.10
essay	262	0.26	292	0.10	108.09
Birkerts	40	0.04	0	0.00	105.93
companies	73	0.07	30	0.01	87.60
Canyon	33	0.03	0	0.00	87.39
Winterson	229	0.22	276	0.10	81.48
Hochschild	30	0.03	0	0.00	79.45
Guernica	28	0.03	0	0.00	74.15
about	586	0.57	1033	0.37	7G1.50
meaning	130	0.13	122	0.04	70.65
cake	29	0.03	1	0.00	68.65
Allisons	79	0.08	50	0.02	67.88
authors	64	0.06	32	0.01	67.07
life	335	0.33	517	0.18	65.03
hidden	57	0.06	26	0.01	63.83
advertisement	117	0.11	113	0.04	60.97

Table 3.4: Top 20 words on relative frequency Table 3.4: Top 20 wordslists/G1.5 vs. NS essays

Word	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Rel. Freq.	# of occurrences in ESL corpus	Rel. Freq.	Log Likelihood (LL>7.0)/ Overuse
Winterson	229	0.22	0	0.00	287.96
immigrants	110	0.11	3	0.00	115.20
Baklava	45	0.04	0	0.00	56.59
your	111	0.11	22	0.02	53.80
Birkerts	40	0.04	0	0.00	50.30
meant	48	0.05	3	0.00	42.11
Canyon	33	0.03	0	0.00	4G1.50
Hochschild	30	0.03	0	0.00	37.72
quaker	27	0.03	0	0.00	33.95
she	557	0.54	329	0.37	32.89
meaning	130	0.13	46	0.05	31.36
here	67	0.07	14	0.02	31.01
mom	47	0.05	6	0.01	30.81
interracial	158	0.15	63	0.07	30.52
picture	103	0.10	33	0.04	29.09
kitten	22	0.02	0	0.00	27.66
pictures	62	0.06	14	0.02	26.69
so	231	0.23	114	0.13	26.42
swiffer	21	0.02	0	0.00	26.41
sweeper	21	0.02	0	0.00	26.41

Table 3.5: Top 20 words on relative frequency lists/G1.5 vs. ESL essays

and Table 3.5 indicates the comparison of G1.5 to ESL wordlists. While I studied the lists well beyond 20 words, as well as studied lists for NS vs. G1.5 essays, ESL vs. G1.5 essays, NS vs. ESL, and ESL vs. NS, these abbreviated lists provide an example of the observations which led me to want to look more at overall trends in lexical and grammatical features rather than at individual words or phrases. My observations included the following:

A. Though all students read and wrote about the same authors, the names of the authors (*Winterson, Allison, Birkerts, Hochschild*, etc.) are over-represented by the G1.5 students compared to the other two groups; in fact, *Hochschild* and *Birkerts* are never mentioned by name in either the NS or ESL essays. This suggests that G1.5 students discuss people more specifically in their writing.

B. Pronouns in various forms (*her, your, she*, as well as others past the first 20) are overused in the G1.5 corpus. This raised questions not only about pronoun use but, considered with their overuse of proper names, also about the focus of G1.5 writing on human referents.

C. References to food (*Baklava, cake*, and other foods, like *Kytya*, which appear after the first 20 words) were intriguing in terms of subject matter for writing, particularly since most of the foods mentioned were ethnic foods. This suggested a reference to their home cultures and therefore perhaps a kind of identity (i.e. self-representation) features worth studying.

D. *Mom* appears as an overused term on the G1.5 vs. ESL list; it also appears quite high up on the G1.5 vs. NS list. Other kinship references (*sister, parents, grandparents, marriage, papa*, etc.) were also present on both lists. This suggested another area where noun choice was focused for these students in a different way from the other two student groups. Despite all the same writing prompts, G1.5 students somehow referenced family more than other students did; perhaps this indicated another identity feature. Also, the forms of the terms- *mom, papa* - suggested a more familiar, rather than formal, way of discussing the topics in an academic venue. Therefore, issues of register were raised.

E. Other terms which made political or religious references (*immigration, interracial, quaker* [student spelling], *god, Jesus Christ, Bajram*) were more typical of G1.5 student essays, and thus positioned them as having more interest in politics and religion in their writing.

F. Adverbs, such as *so* and *here*, appeared more frequently in the G1.5 corpus than the ESL corpus.

G. Words, like *meaning* or *sweeper*, used more frequently by G1.5 students, needed to be looked at in context to determine if they represented a pattern of nominalizations used more frequently by G1.5 students.

These initial observations seemed to suggest that G1.5 students' self-representation in writing was evident, but also indicated that examination of lexical and grammatical trends might perhaps serve to demonstrate how these students use their construction of identity as an integrated system of language. Thus, I used part-of-speech and semantic tagging to identify those lexico-grammatical and semantic features in the corpora which indicate linguistic realizations of self-positioning in the texts.

3.4 Part-of-Speech Tagging: Salient Lexico-Grammatical Features in the G1.5 Corpus as Compared to Both ESL and NS Corpora

In order to consider the distinctive features, my first step was to create a word category profile. This method was used in previous studies to illustrate the distinctive differences between French-speaking learners of English and NS (Granger & Rayson 1998) and elements of spoken English (Svartik & Ekedahl 1995). *WMatrix2* tags over 130 word category tags, some of which were conflated in order to see significant patterns (See Figure 3.1). At first glance, Figure 3.1 would seem to support Ivanič's comment (see page 45) that the software reduces the data to mere linguistic labels; however, a closer examination of even this graph indicates relevant areas of investigation. The reduced tagset contains nine major word categories with 14 subcategories, presented in Table 3.6. While a more detailed analysis of saliency of individual features appears below, this initial word categorization was helpful in determining the following:

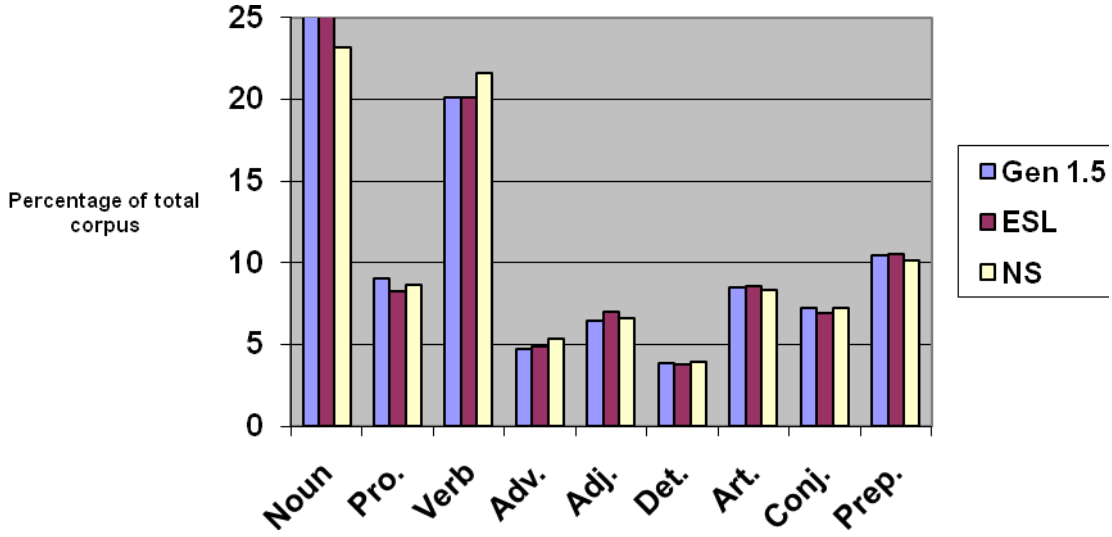

Figure 3.1: Major word category breakdown in G1.5, ESL, & NS corpora

Code	Word Category	Subcategories
Noun	All nouns	Common; proper
Pro.	Pronouns	Personal, including possessive and reflexive; indefinite; *wh*-pronouns
Verb	Verb	Lexical verbs (all forms, including finite, present & past participles, infinitives); modal auxiliaries
Adv.	Adverbs	Prepositional, particles; all other categories
Adj.	Adjectives	all
Det.	Determiners	all
Art.	Articles	*a*, *an*, *the*, *no*, *every*
Conj.	Conjunctions	Coordinating; subordinating
Prep.	Prepositions	All, including multi-word prepositional phrases

Table 3.6: Word class categories

A. The graph serves as a reminder that, while significant differences among the three corpora do emerge, the *big picture* suggests that the differences are not huge and obvious, that the essays are more alike than not, and that the log likelihoods point us to those areas where the data does not overlap. We must not, however, forget that the largest segments of data are similar among the three data sets.

B. The only category which shows a significant overuse by G1.5 students as compared to the other two groups is the pronoun category. NS overuse verbs most significantly, and only the noun category showed a slight overuse by ESL students.

C. G1.5 and NS student writers appear to have nearly identical frequency of use of conjunctions and determiners. G1.5 and ESL students shared verbs, articles, and prepositions in terms of most similar frequency usages.

D. G1.5 writers appeared to use adjectives and adverbs less frequently than the other two groups.

As this information generates more questions than answers, more detailed POS tagsets were created in order to discover more specific features which are over-represented and under-represented by G1.5 students, as compared to both the NS and ESL student corpora. The results appear in Table 3.7. Interestingly, Table 3.7 does highlight overuse of many pronouns by the G1.5 students, as we would expect from looking at Figure 3.1; however, the third person plural pronoun subject, *they*, is underused by these same students.

Over-represented features	Under-represented features
AAPGE[30] - Possessive Pronouns & Determiners	RR - All adverbs
PPHS1 - *S/he, she, he*	II21 - Multi word prepositional phrases, e.g. *away from, depending on, out of, according to*, etc.
PPIS2 - *We*	VVN - Past participle of lexical verbs
PPIO2- *Us*	NN02- *hundreds, thousands, millions*
NNU - Units of Measurement	DA2 – *many, few, several*
	XX- *not, n't, not only*
	PPHS2 - *they*

Table 3.7: Patterns of over- and underuse in G1.5 corpus as compared to ESL and NS corpora

All general adverbs appear to be underused by G1.5 students, as is indicated on the graph; however, while the graph indicated a similar frequency of usage between the G1.5 and ESL students regarding verbs and prepositions, a closer look at the subcategories indicates an under-representation of past participle forms of verbs and multi-word prepositional phrases

[30] Grammatical category and subcategory codes are the same as used in *WMatrix2* (Rayson 2007) to identify features.

by G1.5 students. A closer examination of specific features is necessary in order to move from a vague overview to detailed examination of relevant lexico-grammatical features in G1.5 student writing.

3.4.1 Salient Features in G1.5 Corpus as Compared to Both ESL and NS Corpora

The over-representation of personal pronoun forms by G1.5 student writers is highly relevant to the discussion of self-representation in writing; not only do first person pronoun forms overtly indicate the writer's presence in the text, but third person pronoun forms are often associated with a narrative writing style. In general, Biber et al (1999:270-272,340-342) argue that pronouns appear more frequently in spoken than in written English, which suggests that the overuse of these forms by G1.5 students could indicate that they write in a less formal, more conversational style than is expected in formal written academic discourse. A closer examination and analysis of pronoun use in conjunction with other features appears in Chapter 5. The NNU category, which Rayson (2007) defines as "Units of Measurement", turned out to be a deceiving one at closer inspection. Most of the items counted were page numbers, percentages, and website addresses listed in bibliographies or in-text citations; this kind of entry also appeared in the other corpora. Therefore, I considered these errors in tagging and will not discuss this category further.

Grammatical Feature Code	Description	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Rel. Freq.	# of occurrences in ESL corpus	Rel. Freq.	LL between G1.5 & ESL	# of occurrences in NS corpus	Rel. Freq.	LL between G1.5 & NS
AAPGE	Possessive pronouns/ Determiners	2433	2.37	1777	1.98	33.90	5220	1.85	10G1.57
PPHS1	s/he	918	0.90	661	0.74	14.78	1753	0.62	78.15
PPIS2	We	715	0.70	528	0.59	8.84	1433	0.51	46.86
PPIO2	Us	274	0.27	183	0.20	8.14	486	0.17	32.60
NNU	Units of measurement	449	0.44	248	0.28	35.10	850	0.30	39.90

Table 3.8: Salient (LL >7.0) grammatical features in G1.5 corpus as compared to both ESL and NS corpora

3.5 Salient Features in G1.5 Corpus as Compared to ESL Corpus Only

Section 3.4 details those lexico-grammatical features which showed over-representation in the G1.5 student corpus as compared to both the ESL and NS data. In order to fully identify those features which differentiate the G1.5 students from the other two, it is also necessary to look at those features which G1.5 students overuse in comparison to only ESL students and in comparison to only NS students. This will demonstrate marked features, but will also indicate the areas where G1.5 student writing shows similarities with one group versus the other, where the G1.5 students show writing behaviors similar to their NS counterparts and where they exhibit characteristics of NNS speakers. In this way, we will have a better picture of who these students are in their writing and what they need in terms of instruction. In order to do this, I studied the data for lexico-grammatical features which represented salient differences between G1.5 students and ESL students, but not NS students, and then between G1.5 students and NS students, but not ESL students. This section illustrates the areas of key differences between the G1.5 data and the ESL data only. In addition to the features discussed in Section 3.4, the features discussed herein represent overuse by the G1.5 writers compared to the ESL writers. In some cases, these features were not markedly different between the G1.5 writers and the NS writers and therefore represent similarities in the writing of these two student groups.

Table 3.9 indicates that, in addition to the over-represented pronouns which appeared in Table 3.8, the second and third person pronouns, *you* and *it*, appear more frequently in the G1.5 essays than in the ESL essays. The base forms of lexical verbs (VV0) function in the G1.5 corpus primarily as second person (*you*) present tense verb forms or verbs following (modal) auxiliaries. Though overall, adverbs are under-represented by G1.5 students, locative (RL) and temporal (RT) adverbs are over-represented when compared to the ESL data and suggest a focus on specific narrative devices. Determiner usage is often problematic

for NNS and the over-representation here of demonstratives (DD1) justifies close analysis. The over-representation of various conjunctions also warrants investigation into their usage as linking devices and effect on sentence structures.

Grammatical Feature Code	Description	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Rel. Freq.	# of occurrences in ESL corpus	Rel. Freq.	Log likelihood between G1.5 & ESL
PPY	You	390	0.38	239	0.27	19.28
PPH1	It	1435	1.40	1110	1.24	9.60
VV0	Base form of lexical verb	2529	2.47	1903	2.12	24.96
DD1	Demonstrative determiner (this, that)	1496	1.46	1159	1.29	9.60
RL	Locative adverbs	254	0.25	136	0.15	22.27
RT	Temporal adverbs	402	0.39	247	0.28	19.60
CS	Subordinating conjunctions	1246	1.22	932	1.04	13.35
CCB	But	454	0.44	321	0.36	8.65
CST	That (as conjunction)	1660	1.62	1305	1.45	8.45
JK	Be able to, be willing to	70	0.07	34	0.04	8.39

Table 3.9: Salient features – G1.5 compared to ESL only

3.6 Salient Features in G1.5 Corpus as Compared to NS Corpus Only

Comparing the frequency results of the salient features in the G1.5 corpus as compared to ESL data and here to NS data, some interesting patterns emerge. While base forms of lexical verbs were salient in G1.5 essays as compared to ESL essays, here we note that it is past tense forms of verbs and third person present tense which are over-represented. Though G1.5 students used more conjunctions than ESL students, comparison data against NS students suggest that prepositional phrases are used to connect text more in G1.5 data than NS data. It is important to note that, as above, where overuse of features by G1.5 students often were over-represented by NS students, the features in Table 3.10 represent linguistic elements which are, for the most part, salient differences between ESL and NS students as well. With the exception of *was* (VVD) and exemplification markers (REX21), all the features in the above table are used at almost the same rate by both G1.5 and ESL students, indicating some similarities between these two groups.

Grammatical Feature Code	Description	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Rel. Freq.	# of occurrences in NS corpus	Rel. Freq.	Saliency or log likelihood between G1.5 & NS
VVD	Past tense verbs	1251	1.22	2655	0.94	56.58
VVZ	-s form of verb	2244	2.19	5618	1.99	14.91
VBDZ	Was	510	0.50	1155	0.41	13.42
VBZ	Is	2363	2.31	6067	2.15	8.70
AT	Definite article (the)	6362	6.21	16386	5.79	21.43
REX21	Exemplification	100	0.10	143	0.05	24.06
II	Prepositions	6119	5.97	15802	5.59	19.07
IO	Of	2962	2.89	7584	2.68	11.74

Table 3.10: Salient features – G1.5 compared to NS only

3.7 Summary

Thus far I have argued that a corpus-driven approach can reveal trends and generalizations regarding features of self-representation in these G1.5 student texts. The data exposed the over-represented and under-represented lexico-grammatical features in the G1.5 corpus (as compared to the NS and ESL corpora) which mark the G1.5 student writing as different from the writing of both NS and traditional ESL students. Most obviously, they overuse pronouns to a great degree. Another significant result in this data was the importance of noting that all of these students shared more commonalities than exhibited differences. Furthermore, even when frequency numbers indicated commonalities among the groups, as will be seen in closer analysis in the following chapters, the qualitative use of the some features was significantly different.

In the following chapters, I will argue that G1.5 students self-represent through linguistic realizations which will be detailed through an analysis of key semantic and lexico-grammatical features. Though the expression and function of many of the features often overlap and could arguably be designated as one or more positioning types, rationale for including discussion of specific features in the relevant chapters is included in detail in each chapter, based on analysis and current research literature. The quantitative and qualitative

value of these features will then suggest a generalized picture of G1.5 student writing in light of academic conventions. Details of the corpus data will be analyzed as follows:

- Chapter 4 will discuss data in terms of Ideational Positioning and include analysis of features which indicate an expression of human experience and elements of lexicogrammar which appear dedicated to expressing a message *about* something. The chapter will focus on the following features:
    - Semantic and lexical choices
    - Verbs types and tense
    - Locative and temporal adverbs
    - Exemplification
    - Determiners
- Chapter 5 will detail elements of Interpersonal Positioning in G1.5 essays as compared to other student texts, focusing on features which express the enactment personal and social relationships, whereby they inform, question, appraise, offer, and lead the reader. The chapter includes discussion of the following features:
    - Pronouns
    - Questions
    - Conjunctions
- Chapter 6 will analyze those elements relevant to Textual Positioning, which build up the sequences of discourse, organize discursive flow, create cohesion and continuity, and address (or not) specific rhetorical goals:
    - Linking Devices
    - Prepositions
    - Response to writing prompts

CHAPTER 4:
IDEATIONAL POSITIONING

"Ultimately, it is your opinion that matters most when presenting yourself."(gen0002rr)

4.1 Introduction and Rationale

Thus far, an overview of the results of the corpus investigation has been presented. In this chapter, I would like to discuss some of those results in further detail in order to argue that G1.5 students self-represent in their writing in ways different from other student writers. As reviewed in Chapter 1, Halliday explains that the ideational metafunction of language is concerned with ways of writing (or talking) about something; language "construe[s] human experience…language provides a theory of human experience, and certain of the resources of the lexico-grammar of every language are dedicated to that function" (Halliday 2004:29). While Halliday describes the ideational metafunction of language as naming experience, I take Ivanič's and Camps' (2001) view that this metafunction, as well as the interpersonal and textual, helps in the construction of identity of the writer since the writer's semantic and lexico-grammatical choices cannot be separated from the voice position of the author. I propose herein that the construction of identity is a property of all three macrofunctions, that those lexico-grammatical features which Halliday associated with the ideational metafunction also participate in the subject-positioning of the writer. Ivanič and Camps (2001:5) explain that there "is no such thing as 'impersonal' writing because writers convey messages about themselves by such acts as … representing a social process by a verb, accompanied by human actors, or representing a social process as a nominalization: a noun stripped of tense, modality, subject, and objects…" In other words, I am using the term *ideational positioning* to refer to the way in which the selection of semantics and lexico-grammatical structures suggest the student writer as having particular ideas, interests, and views of the world, and thereby convey a representation of the self in his/her text.

In this chapter, I will review and analyze the semantic choices of G1.5 students in their essays as compared to the other two student groups. I will also examine certain grammatical features, such as verb type and tense, adverbs, exemplification, and determiners, in order to illustrate the unique position of G1.5 student writers in the academy. In this way, I posit that G1.5 students construct an ideational version of themselves via semantic and lexico-grammatical means by which they construe knowledge and understanding of the world.

4.2 Semantic Features: Representing Interests, Preferences, Beliefs

As part of the corpus annotation discussed in Chapter 3, I used the USAS tagger in *WMatrix 2* to assign semantic field codes to the data in all three corpora. The purpose was to be able to compare the three sets of data for their relative use of semantic categories. The ability to extract key concepts and major conceptual trends in the data allowed me to further examine the corpora beyond the word or POS level in order to add to the forming picture I had of salient differences in G1.5 student writing. I also hoped that extracting key semantic concepts in the corpora would help to test the hypotheses made earlier that G1.5 student writers adapt fewer features of academic discourse into their writing and use more elements of narrative writing in their texts, whatever the rhetorical nature of any particular assignment.

Rayson (2002:112) argues that comparison at the semantic level presents information that is not available at the (key) word or POS levels. Consider, for example, the semantic category of 'Education' (see Table 4.1 below). Of the words in this category, like *essay, school, teacher(s), student(s), college, classes*, and more, only one, *essay*, appears significant in the word level comparison (see Table 3.4). Rayson explains that "Collecting words into semantic fields allows us to see trends that are invisible at the word level" (2002:112). In their study, Henry and Roseberry (2001:101) report similar findings where grouping words and phrases together by semantic domains allows for the inclusion of low frequency words

which otherwise would have been missed. Another advantage to comparing corpora at the semantic level is that the semantic USAS tagger in *WMatrix 2* is designed to group together multi-word units and variants which might otherwise be missed if examining data at only the word or POS level (Rayson 2002:113). In addition to looking at clusters or collocates on traditional concordance software, semantic tagging provides an alternative way to consider lexical bundling which might otherwise be overlooked. For example in the 'Difficulty' category, *WMatrix 2* includes phrases *like hard work, hard times, got a job*, and more. While some of these phrases, such as *got a job*, might in fact be meant positively and therefore not relevant to a 'Difficulty' category, examination of the corpus data in this case indicated that all such phrases were appropriately tagged.

In this section, I will review the data extrapolated from the comparison of semantic tagsets over the three corpora. Because these data come from the same corpora as discussed in Chapter 3, I will not discuss methodology of data collection here. Looking at the top ten most frequent semantic categories used by the G1.5 students as compared to the ESL and NS students, I will review the data in order to discuss the trends in light of previously discussed data.

4.2.1 Data and Results

The top ten tags with the largest log likelihoods showing over-representation in the G1.5 corpus compared to both the ESL and NS corpora appear in Table 4.1. Please note that I will be discussing here the categories in which there appeared over-representation of the qualifying terms in the G1.5 corpus as compared to both the ESL and NS data. There were domains where G1.5 overuse appeared in comparison to ESL data only or to NS data only; these categories also were predictable based on results discussed in Chapter 3. Therefore, due to space considerations, I will focus herein only on those features listed in Table 4.1.

Semantic Category	Description	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	# of occurrences in ESL corpus	Log Likelihood – G1.5 vs. ESL	# of occurrences in NS corpus	Log Likelihood – G1.5 vs. NS
Pronouns	I, it, s/he, myself, yours, etc.	11,471	9,284	31.52	30,723	7.29
Kinship	Mom, dad, grandparent, etc.	1146	715	51.55	2543	36.39
Speech	State, say, speech, talked, etc.	1047	712	27.36	2232	45.84
Education	School, learning, teacher, etc.	753	548	10.89	1457	59.92
Sight	View, watched, observed, etc,	744	543	10.45	1476	51.70
Religion	Muslim, religion, Ramadan, etc.	433	258	24.55	834	35.28
Alive	Life, live, lives, living, life work, etc.	423	285	11.82	756	48.77
Difficulty	Hard, problems, challenging, tricky, etc.	173	107	8.15	297	23.41
Politics	Equal rights, communist, election, capitalism, etc.	113	66	7.02	175	21.70
Comparing: Similar/different	Compare, comparing, in comparison to, in relation to, etc.	59	25	10.01	93	10.73

Table 4.1: Top 10 semantic categories in G1.5 corpus compared to ESL & NS corpora

In examining the chart, it appears that the domains can be subcategorized into word class-based domains and semantics-based domains; examination of the inclusions in the categories entitled ‘Pronouns’, ‘Speech’, ‘Sight’, and ‘Comparing’ revealed words or phrases more related to specific word class categories. ‘Pronouns’, for example, was a category made up of only pronouns, while ‘Speech’ and ‘Sight’ included a majority of verbs. Other categories included a variety of word types related through semantic content. Some of the

categories, for example Pronouns, have been discussed in Chapter 3 and will be analyzed in detail in Chapter 5; therefore they will be mentioned only briefly here.

4.2.2 Word Class-Based Domains

The categories considered as word class-based domains include the 'Pronouns', 'Speech', 'Sight', and 'Comparing' categories and are listed in Table 4.2 along with some of the included words and phrases. Several of the categories listed include much of what was discussed in Chapter 3 and which will be discussed in further detail below and in subsequent chapters. Pronouns, for example, are clearly the most overused feature by G1.5 students and therefore warrant considerable discussion (see Chapter 5).

Semantic Category	Included features, words
Pronouns	*It, they, I, we, their, she, that, our, what, her, you, everyone, somebody, myself,* etc.
Speech	*Say(s), said, states, talks, story, saying, point, talk, mention(s), communicate, interview, voice, consult, dialogue, conversation, speech, unspoken,* etc.
Sight	*See(s), look at, observer, gaze, glancing, reflection, watch, optical, eye contact, visually,* etc.
Comparing	*Compare(s) (-ed)(-ing), comparison, in relation*

Table 4.2: Terms in word class-based domains

The predominant features in the 'Sight' and 'Speech' categories are verbs which will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 4. In addition to the verbs in these two domains, related nouns and adjectives are included. In examining the essays, I found that those terms were primarily included in the texts either as part of a personal example given or as a reference to a textual example, as illustrated in the following examples:

'Speech'

4a. <… In writing this essay about Allison's "This Is Our World", I will **mention** my personal experience about this dialogue. I will also analyze and **express** what the author is attempting to **vocalize**…> (gen0095rr)

4b. <… The editorial's **point** is about why we given with freedom of **speech** if we are not allow to make a **statement** with art.> (gen0116ab)

'Sight'

4c. <… as another **observer** with a different life may have **looked** at the painting and **saw** an atrocious way of generating a secular **image**> (gen106cc)

4d. <… It is like **watching** a rainbow; always a pleasant welcomed **site** [student's spelling].> (gen0033de)

Example 4a refers to the student's use of *speech* whereas example 4b provides an interpretation of an author's statements with further clarification. The examples in 4c and 4d also demonstrate both the student use of *sight* as explanation of a text and as a metaphor for a pleasant experience/view. It should be noted that these examples come from several different essay types – a reader-response essay, an annotated bibliography, a comparison-contrast essay, and a descriptive essay (as is indicated by the last two letters in the identifying code; please refer to the List of Conventions at the beginning of this Module). This indicates that these semantic domains cross genre boundaries for these students.

I have also included the 'Comparing' category in this section since in Chapter 3 the overuse of certain contrary/comparative conjunctions was seen, such as *but* (see also Chapter 5), and in Chapter 6 the overuse of degree adverbs and comparative and superlative adjectives in certain prompt writings will be discussed. As 'Comparing' terms also express a comparative relationship and appear in the corpus as verbs, prepositional phrases, or conjunctions, I decided to include the category here. Perhaps surprisingly, these terms also appear in multiple essay types, not strictly in comparison-contrast essays or research reports, where one might expect to find them. Examples include:

4e. <… it could not be **compared** to something else in the world. The best thing to **compare** it to would be ice-cream…> (gen0036de)

4f. < She **compares** the person's life to a bridge, which connects personal and private part…> (gen0065ab)

4g. <… The life of today's woman has changed drastically when **comparing** traditional and modern families…> (gen0056rr)

4h. <… Allison's theory that art should unsettle us has more **similarities** than **differences** when **compared** to Winterson's view that art involves reciprocity…> (gen104cc)

As in the examples above, these texts demonstrate students using these terms to describe personal narratives as well as detailing information from texts. The student in 4e, for example, uses analogy to give a frame of reference to the reader in order to describe his/her topic, which suggests an awareness of a reader with a different knowledge-base.

4.2.3 Semantics-Based Domains

Inclusions in key categories like 'Kinship', 'Religion', 'Politics' and 'Education' seem to support observations that these students are employing personal experiences and concerns as means to interpret and relate to class work and text readings. While certain terms within these categories appeared on the keywords lists (see Tables 3.4 & 3.5), their overwhelming presence in the texts in comparison to the other two student groups suggests a major area of focus for these students. Table 4.3 provides a list of some of the key terms which appear in each of these domains. Just as the interviews in the assessment study (Chapter 2) revealed that G1.5 students evaluated essays in terms of personal agreement with the authors' position, demonstrating that personal involvement is relevant to their view of writing, these themes are very interesting to consider as representative of the concerns of these students. As young

Semantic Category	Included features, words
Kinship	*Family, marriage, parents, mother, wife, father, son, grandparents, household, papa, wedding, divorce,* etc.
Education	*Essay, education, students, study, teach, college, class, assignment, university, test, high school,* etc.
Religion	*Religion, Quaker, church, Christmas, holy, orthodox, Muslim, divine, Ramadan, myths,* etc.
Politics	*Political, capitalism, equal rights, communism, vote, elected, revolution,* etc.
Alive	*Life, live, lives, life work, alive, life based*
Difficulty	*Problem(s), difficult, hardships, challenges, complex ,complicated, tricky, burden, hard time, hard work, got a job, snag,* etc.

Table 4.3: Terms in semantics-based domains

people deciding on their place in the (world, local, university) community, they come with a special set of experiences which neither the ESL nor NS students share, or perhaps can even comprehend. Building their writing around these themes suggests those topics which are important to them at this stage of their lives – family, education, religion, and more. Since many of these students come to the U.S. as refugees, topics such as politics, difficulties and being alive also come as no surprise and seem to continue to inform their world view despite extended time in a new country. As above, these themes appear in their work across all essay types and grammatical categories, and are best illustrated through the use of examples from the texts:

'Kinship'

4i. <… My **mom** and **sister** were at the same place where I had left them…> (gen0033de)

4j. <… **Couples** that **intermarry** go through a lot of *problems* not only through their own **family** but also from the **community**. There are still people who are against, and **intermarriage** is a good way to overcome racial or ethnic *discrimination*…> (gen0061ab)

'Education'

4k. <… But the most important thing is that immigrants, who were not born in the US, are able to get a better **education**, and therefore get better jobs for themselves…> (gen0082rp)

4l. <… I have first time to meet with this piece I was in **high school**. In **class**, we were **studying** about Vincent van Gogh's pieces and we had to choose one of them to draw…> (gen0168ab)

'Religion'

4m. <… My *family* left Ukraine because they hated *communists* and were oppressed by Russia for being Ukrainian and for *freedom* of **religion**. A majority of *Americans* think that everyone who came to United States from the *Soviet Union* was of **Orthodox belief**. In the contrary, most people that came here are **Protestant, Jewish, Catholic, and Muslim**; almost none are **Orthodox**. (gen0079rp)

4n. <… In *Kosova* baklava is usually made during the holiday of **Bajram**, which is right after **Ramadan**. The *Albanian* **Muslims** celebrate **Bajram** but I am not certain if all **Muslims** do…> (gen0031de)

'Politics'

4o. <… Guevara met his future partner in crime and fellow **communist** Fidel Castro. Guevara and Fidel joined forces and formed the

revolution in Cuba that eventually **overthrew the current president** and instated Fidel as their **dictator**.> (gen0178rp)

4p. <… On that website, I discovered that there were numerous topics from **politics** to science for me to choose from…> (gen0163rr)

'Alive'

4q. The key is to make us believe that a product could *revolutionize* our **lives** in many favorable aspects…> (gen0193ca)

4r. <… He talks about **escaping** his homeland and *coming to America* for better **life** with no *discrimination*. His **life** in USA was not the easy at the begging, since after arriving to USA he became and *orphan*…> (gen0063ab)

'Difficulty'

4s. <… Most immigrants have a **difficult** life because their countries are **poor** and they have to work twice as **hard** to support their *families*.> (gen0078rp)

4t. <… Despite all the **hardships** along the way, immigrants work and study **hard** in order to get their college diploma which is equivalent to *educational* passport in life…> (gen0082rp)

Several observations from these examples can be made. Note first that, despite the essay type, these students often include their personal experience as in the examples from an annotated bibliography in 4l and a research report in 4m. In a similar vein, these students will interpret text information using their own experiences or opinions, as in the examples from research reports in 4k, 4s and 4t. Clearly these semantic areas are so important to students that they occur not just when students are assigned these topics, but in the topics the students choose to write about and in the way G1.5 students interpret texts and textual references. They write from a place of personal investment, much more revealingly than either the ESL or NS students. It is also important to note that these domains bleed into one another. By looking at examples 4j, 4m-n, and 4q-t, it can be seen that kinship, religious, political, and more domains often appear in the same discourse and in some ways are inseparable for these writers.

4.2.4 Conclusions Regarding Semantic Categories

Results from looking at key semantic categories of the data suggest numerous paths of further investigation, from grammatical variation to issues of self-representation and discovery in text. The semantic categories represent distinct areas of interest and experience among G1.5 students which affect their approach to the presentation of knowledge-making, despite essay prompt or assignment type. Some conclusions drawn from this cursory study and ideas for further analysis include:

1. Examining semantic categories provides a broader view of issues in data which word or POS study alone might miss.

2. Examining semantic categories confirms data analysis of some lexico-grammatical features.

3. Examining semantic categories illustrates the importance of issues of family, education, and more for the G1.5 students and their self-development process.

4. Examining semantic categories highlights the fact that these topical issues are not exclusive but in fact cross over and often appear together.

5. Examining semantic categories further confirms that, despite type of writing, G1.5 students insert themselves and their concerns into their essays, in both appropriate and inappropriate ways.

6. Examining semantic categories confirms that there are salient differences in the novice essay writing of G1.5 students as compared to ESL or NS students.

4.3 Lexico-Grammatical Features: Representing Preferences, Beliefs, Views of Knowledge-Making

Just as the semantic choices indicate the different interests and preferences of the student writers, so too can it be argued that some of their lexico-grammatical choices can represent their different views of knowledge-making and add to the personal and cultural selves they represent in their essays. Ivanič and Camps (2001:14) refer to the use of various syntactic elements which can position writers, including personal or impersonal ways of referring to

people, using active or passive verbs, using generic or specific nominal references. Traditionally, knowledge in an academic essay was to be presented in an objective manner, indicating knowledge as something which was *universally true*. This was done using present tense verbs to represent *universal truths*, using *state* verbs, employing passive constructions, particularly regarding the process of research, omitting first-person references, and few references to people as agents or subjects. Analysis of corpus data indicates that G1.5 students take a radically different approach to knowledge-making. Evidence suggests that they seem to create meaning in text by relating personal narratives situated in time and place, creating more subjective views of knowledge and knowledge-making than either the NS or ESL students. This is indicated not only by their semantic choices but also by the over-representation in their writing of various verb forms, use of locative and temporal adverbs, exemplification and more. The present and past tense forms of lexical verbs (VV0, VVZ, VVD) are over-represented in the G1.5 corpus, and locative (RL) and temporal adverbs (RT) are overused compared to the ESL students and appear in all text types, giving detail to narratives in the writing. Use of the demonstrative determiners (DD1) also point primarily to specific individuals or items referred to in the texts. In examining the corpus data, there are no unusual uses of these features; however it is the frequency of these features themselves as well as the qualitative difference in usage of some of these features (as compared to NS and ESL learners) which demonstrate the *voice types* employed in the discourse of the G1.5 students.

4.3.1 Verbs: Type and Tense

Analysis of the G1.5 corpus indicates the types of verbs most frequently used by the student writers. Biber et al (1999:358-380) report on the distribution of lexical verbs across domains and break down categories of verb meaning into seven domains. Of the ten most frequent lexical verbs in the G1.5 corpus, eight fall into the category of ‘mental’ verbs and

are far more prevalent in conversation and fiction writing than in academic writing (see Table 4.4). Though verbs in the 'existence' domain generally appear more frequently in academic writing, *look* appears more in fiction and conversation and is almost non-existent in academic prose (Biber et al 1999:369); however, *look* is the only verb in that domain which appears in this list. In other words, nine out of the top ten verbs used in the G1.5 corpus are verbs which are primarily used in conversation and fiction, not in academic prose. This suggests that in these respects G1.5 students elide the register differences between formal academic writing and conversation or personal narrative.

Semantic Domain[31]	Verb	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Relative frequency
mental	see	121	0.12
mental	want	101	0.10
mental	think	64	0.06
mental	need	58	0.06
activity	make	46	0.04
mental	know	46	0.04
mental	get (meaning: understand)	41	0.04
mental	feel	40	0.04
mental	believe	39	0.04
existence	look	37	0.04

Table 4.4 Semantic domain of ten most frequent lexical verbs (VV0) in G1.5 corpus

Given the overuse of several verb forms, it is no surprise that G1.5 writers over-represent pronouns too. As can be observed in Table 4.5, the variety of the most frequent lexical verbs and their semantic domains are much more varied as compared to those verbs (VV0) appearing in Table 4.4, where the 'mental' domain dominated as did use of verbs which Biber et al (1999) associate with primarily conversational and narrative use. Comparing G1.5 data to NS data, the semantic domains vary with verbs of 'communication'(35%) and 'activity' (30%) dominating. In addition, these verbs are not necessarily associated with conversation, but according to Biber et al (1999:367-369), can be found across registers, including academic prose.

[31]Semantic domains of lexical verbs are distinguished by Biber et al (1999:367-371).

Past tense verbs (VVD)	# of occurrences	Semantic domain	-s form of verbs (VVZ)	# of occurrences	Semantic domain
said	76	communication	makes	99	activity
became	36	occurrence	says	92	communication
saw	34	mental	states	76	communication
made	33	activity	shows	72	activity
wrote	29	communication	sees	61	mental
meant	27	mental	describes	52	communication
started	25	aspectual	gives	48	activity
stated	22	communication	means	44	mental
took	21	activity	wants	43	mental
got	19	activity	writes	42	communication

Table 4.5 Ten most frequent VVD and VVZ verb forms with semantic domains (Biber et al 1999:367-369) in G1.5 corpus as compared to NS corpus

In examining the data qualitatively, two patterns seem to appear with the use of past tense lexical verbs: discussing past time events, as in narration of personal examples, and reporting observations, results of research, and similar. Examples include:

Past time events/narration

4u. <… We **came** here and my mother **started** working outside of the house, she **got** a job.> (gen0052rr)

4v. <…After few handfuls, I **took** two pieces into my mouth and **let** it melt.> (gen0033de)

Reporting research

4w. <… Martin Luther King, Jr. **stated** that America is a land where human beings of all races, of all nationalities…> (gen0080rp)

4x. <…In this document, she **wrote** a biography on Pablo Picasso.> (gen0173ab)

Rather than objectify knowledge-making, the G1.5 students here identify themselves with a view of knowledge-making as the result of human processes and lived experience. In examples 4u and 4v, students are offering their own experiences as evidence. Examples 4w and 4x reference the authors of the research statement using active voice. In traditional academic writing, knowledge-making is typically presented as an empirical process which involves research and writing and manifests linguistically by a lack of first-person reference, more verbs in the passive than in other kinds of writing, and few references to specific people. Here however, the G1.5 students give a more personal slant to their knowledge; they

report personal experience and refer to researchers and writers in recognition of human agency. Though using active voice in academic writing is in the majority, there is a substantial minority of passive use. However, G1.5 students rarely used passive voice verbs; corpus data from ESL and NS corpora indicated a higher frequency of passive verb forms (*to be* + V-*ed*) in similar environments than did the G1.5 data.

Representing a further move toward subjectivity, the present tense verb usage also indicates two patterns: stating generalizations or reporting information which also reflects the writer's opinion or interpretation, as in the illustrations:

Stating generalizations

4y. <…Phyllo which **means** "leaf" in Greek, are very thin sheets of dough made from flour…> (gen0031de)

4z. <…It **reminds** me of peace and happiness. It **makes** me smile and happy. It **brings** families and friends closer together…> (gen0033de)

Reporting with opinion/interpretation

4aa. <… it **is** really necessary to know the concepts and the meaning of art, because it **gives** you an idea about what art **is** in our society…> (gen0095rr)

4bb. <…He **wants** to know the teachers feelings toward this conflict and what they are teaching their students…> (gen120rp)

4cc. <…This **shows** that humans are too stubborn to change and animals are able to change…> (gen0010rp)

In the above examples, students are reporting personal examples and narrating their own stories in the academic texts. They are using syntax and lexis both to include evaluation features inseparable from their presentation of information. In example 4z, the student is referring to something which creates a personal reaction in her: *It reminds me* and *It makes me smile*; however, she extends that beyond her personal experience of the object to make a generalization of the effect of the object on humankind: *It brings families and friends closer together*. She uses the present tense verb to indicate a universal truth which is unquestionable. In examples 4aa-4cc the student writers include opinions of their subjects (as in *it is necessary ….because*) and subjective interpretation of data for the readers (as in *this shows*

that humans are too stubborn …). While present tense verb forms do not indicate personal involvement of the writer in the text in and of themselves, (as do other features, such as first person pronouns), further investigation into their use indicate that the present tense verb forms co-occur with elements of the G1.5 students' self-presentation in their texts. In summation, then, by using present tense verbs G1.5 students are making universal claims and reporting information while including personal opinion and interpretation, thereby portraying a view of knowledge presentation as inseparable from self-representation.

While reporting research and information is a cornerstone in academic discourse, the verbs which these G1.5 students use often indicate 'activity' or 'mental' processes rather than verbs from the 'causative' (e.g. *help, require, allow*) or 'occurrence' domains (e.g. *change, develop, occur*) which, according to Biber et al (1999: 366) are most often used in academic prose. In addition, their view of knowledge is often discoursally realized in present and past tense verbs with human agents, in narrative accounts of personal activities situated in time and place, and in reference to experience.

4.3.2 Adverbs

Thus far, data indicates that G1.5 student use of verbs in their essays is dominated by past tense forms for reporting information or narrating events, and present tense forms for interpreting information and stating generalizations. As adverbs add important information to sentences and verb phrases, they can be a rich area of research; however major differences in usage of adverbs among the three corpora did not appear, except in the use of locative (RL) and temporal (RT) adverbs, which the G1.5 students over-represented as compared to the ESL writers; NS students also overused these adverbs in relation to ESL students. These particular types of common adverbs are, according to Biber et al (1999:560), especially common in conversation as their meanings are "all deictic – i.e. they can only be defined relative to the time and place of a particular utterance (e.g. *now* = 'at the time of speaking')".

Locative Adverb	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Rel. Freq.	Temporal Adverb	# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus	Rel. Freq.
here	67	0.07	then	131	0.13
together	51	0.05	today	87	0.08
there	41	0.04	now	68	0.07
home	18	0.02	sometimes	39	0.04
away	13	0.01	nowadays	26	0.03

Table 4.6: Five most frequent locative and temporal adverbs in G1.5 corpus

The most frequent of these adverbs in the G1.5 corpus reflect for the most part the most commonly used adverbs in conversation in these same domains according to Biber et al (1999:796-698) and are listed in Table 4.6. Those adverbs which Biber et al (1999) do not include in their lists of most frequent adverbs include the locative *home* and the temporal *nowadays*. Examples from the corpus include:

Locative adverbs

4dd. <…when families had hard time raising their children, one parent would support the family and the other one would stay **home** to look after their children…> (gen0055rr)

4ee. <… When I came **here** from Ukraine, it was still part of U.S.S.R.> (gen0079rp)

Temporal Adverbs

4ff. <… **Nowadays**, the word efficiency dominates the market, because the more it does in a short amount of time the better the product is.> (gen0193ca)

4gg. <… Much like the way Allison had to leave and **then** come back to a puzzle or photograph, I left and **then** returned to Pablo Picasso's painting, "Guernica."> (gen0180rp)

It should be noted that examples 4ee and 4gg come from research reports where students were to use academic sources as the basis for their information and knowledge claims; however, these students have used lived experience situated in time and place, employing adverbs more frequently found in conversation and narratives, to construct those claims. These examples provide further evidence that G1.5 self-represent in their writing through the use of narrative features and syntactic markers not associated with academic English, and that their ideational position is one based on personal and cultural history and events.

4.3.3 Exemplification

As noted above, the G1.5 students frequently use personal narrative as examples in their essays. Exemplification in written academic prose is considered valuable and often required to clarify meaning, provide illustration, or describe an event. Signaling phrases, indicating an example will follow, is however, according to Hinkel (2002:146-147) much more frequent in NNS texts. Data from this corpus study seems to support her results. Phrases such as *for example* and *for instance* are overused by the G1.5 students as compared to the NS students; they are also overused by G1.5 students as compared to ESL students, but with a log likelihood of only 5.93. Examples include:

> 4hh. <…If the professor doesn't tell us what's inside, we will learn more and each have different experiences…**For example**, I don't know how to do my homework and he wants me to figure it out by myself. I need to ask an expert how to do it, **for example** my teacher.> (gen0155ca)

> 4ii. <… The photograph, "Kitten on a Clothes Line," does speak to some "protected feeling" I have. It addresses my feeling of insecurity. **For instance**, I sometimes feel lack of academic help from some of my professors in helping me better know what to study for exams.> (gen0175rp)

In the above examples, exemplification is appearing across essay types, as we have seen with other features. Example 4hh comes from a critical analysis essay where the student was to critique two or more pieces of writing and the authors' positions; however, here the student has inserted his lived experience to serve as illustration of a point s/he is making. Example 4ii comes from a research report where the student was asked to choose a piece of art and discuss it in light of research on the role of art in society. Here the student has inserted a personal situation in his/her academic life in order to argue for an interpretation of a photograph.

In the G1.5 texts, students used these markers appropriately and as expected; therefore there is not much to say about the form. However, the frequency with which they introduce personal examples or anecdotes as evidence in academic writing arguably indicates a strategy

of interpreting the material they are encountering in terms of how it relates to them. Therefore, the ideational voice positioning they present is grounded in an interpretation and presentation of knowledge from a self-centered perspective.

4.3.4 Determiners

Finally, Ivanič and Camps (2001:11) suggest that specific or generic reference can indicate a writer's view toward knowledge-making. We have seen above that G1.5 students often refer to specific persons in their discourse. Their use of specific nouns and the determiners that attach to them manifest differently across the corpora. Demonstrative determiners (DD1) are over-represented in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the other two corpora, though they represent a more salient difference with the ESL student data having a

Determiners	**G1.5- # of occurrences**	**Rel. Freq.**	**ESL- # of occurrences**	**Rel. Freq.**	**Log Likelihood**	**NS – # of occurrences**	**Rel. Freq.**	**Log Likelihood**
DD1 – *this/that/ each/another*	1496	1.46	1159	1.29	G1.5 vs. ESL = 9.76	3898	1.38	G1.5 vs. NS = 3.50/ NS vs. ESL = 3.80
DD2 – *These/Those*	253	0.25	252	0.28	ESL vs. G1.5 = 2.11	959	0.34	NS vs. G1.5= 21.44/ NS vs. ESL = 7.34
AT - *the*	6362	6.21	5701	6.35	ESL vs. G1.5 = 1.67	16,386	5.79	G1.5 vs. NS = 21.43/ ESL vs. NS = 35.48
AT 1– *a/an*	2322	2.27	1966	2.19	G1.5 vs. ESL = 1.17	7137	2.52	NS vs. G1.5 = 20.82/ NS vs. ESL = 31.56

Table 4.7: Demonstrative determiners and articles in three corpora

significant log likelihood. Indefinite articles were over-represented in the NS corpus as compared to the other two by a large margin, while the definite article, *the*, is over-represented by G1.5 students as compared to NS students; ESL students and G1.5 frequency of *the* was similar. Analysis of the data suggests that NS students prefer generic references in their texts much more so than either G1.5 or ESL students. In this respect, G1.5 students share frequency of similar linguistic features in their writing with ESL students.

Table 4.7 indicates that NS students use plural demonstrative determiners much more frequently than either of the other student groups, but particularly more frequently than the G1.5 students. In examining contexts for this usage, it would appear that, where NS tend to use plural demonstratives to make generalizations, G1.5 students focus on specific references and examples to present their understanding of information. In Examples 4jj and 4kk below, both G1.5 and NS student writers are responding to an essay prompt where they are instructed to write a critical analysis of an advertisement using the information and theories of assigned readings. Both these students review their advertisements and reference a reading by Susan Bordo. Their approach is very different as is illustrated by their use of demonstratives:

> 4jj. <**This** woman is happy to have big breasts that are in the middle of the paper… Bordo says, "Many cultures, clearly, have revered expansiveness in women's bodies and appetites" (143). **This** quote agrees with my views that women are degraded in advertisements…> (gen0013ca)

> 4kk. <… Images, like the one in **this** ad, are thrown in the faces of women on a daily basis in magazines, such as Cosmopolitan, causing eating disorders. "Psychologists commonly believe that girls with eating disorders suffer from 'body image disturbance syndrome'" (Bordo 558). **These** girls and young women suffer from a disorder relating to their body image...They strive against nearly impossible odds to achieve **these** unrealistic and unattainable results, at times starving themselves or even purging after eating. Presented with **these** body standards on a daily basis, it is no wonder that one in five women have an eating disorder…> (nss1042ca)

As seen in previous examples, the G1.5 student in Example 4jj uses the demonstrative *this* to refer to specific elements in the advertisement and structures his argument to include a

personal opinion. The NS student in Example 4kk only uses the singular demonstrative once to refer to the ad he is meant to describe, but uses plural demonstratives to refer to a wider population of females and mysterious body standards, focusing rather on his perceived results of the advertisements on a wider, general population, rather than focus his argument on the specifics of the ad itself or on his own personal viewpoint. While these examples represent single usages, they do represent a consistent difference in approaches to knowledge presentation and personal involvement in knowledge presentation seen in the student essays.

Regarding the use of the singular demonstrative determiners (DD1), Biber et al (1999: 274-275) report that *this* is more frequent in academic writing and *that* is more frequent in conversation. While *this* is more frequent in the G1.5 corpus (903 occurrences), the high frequency of *that*, as a determiner (435), indicating references to specific people and events, reveals a less formal essay style, replete with more personal examples, such as:

> 4ll. <… writers are against **that** track where they are arguing and suggesting getting of **that** beaten track…> (gen0157ca)
>
> 4mm. <… I want to look cool and sexy like **that** blonde in the advertisement…> (gen0013ca)
>
> 4nn. <… Eating it after all **that** waiting was such a relief…> (gen0031de)

The final lexico-grammatical feature to discuss here is the over-representation of the article *the* by the G1.5 writers. As indicated in Table 4.7, there is a salient over-representation of the indefinite article in the NS corpus as compared to the other two corpora. This result supports the above proposition that some NNS students prefer specific to generic reference in their writing; it also supports literature on article use in general as well as research on article acquisition by NNS. Biber et al (1999:267-270) indicate that the definite article, *the*, is the most commonly used of all the determiners and appears almost twice as frequently in academic texts as does *a/an*. Since mastery of the English article system entails a command of discourse and semantic restraints on the referential noun (phrase), the

acquisition of the article system has long known to be a challenging one for L2 learners. Many researchers (Bickerton 1981, Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999, Halliday & Hasan 1976, Hawkins 1978, Huebner 1983, Liu & Gleason 2002, Quirk et al 1985) have described the difficulty of the system in terms of generic (referring to a species, race or people and usually used with a singular noun) and non-generic (the wider and more frequent use).

While the frequency numbers of *the* reflect what the literature would expect and while there appears to be no salient difference between G1.5 and ESL learners in the frequency with which they use *the*, a qualitative analysis of the different realizations of the uses by these two groups is very revealing. In their study, Liu & Gleason (2002:7) used four subcategories of the non-generic uses of *the* to classify the overuse of the article by ESL students. They categorize the non-generic use of *the* as follows:

1. Cultural use: *the* is used with a noun that is unique and well-known in the speech community.

2. Situation use: *the* is used when the referent of a first-mentioned noun can be sensed directly or indirectly by the interlocutors or the referent is well-known in a local community, such as the only church in a town.

3. Structural use: where *the* is used with a first-mention noun with a modifier.

4. Textual use: where *the* is used with a noun that has been previously referred to or is related to a previously mentioned noun.

Liu & Gleason found in their study that the four categories pose different levels of difficulty for NNS. Because their study was restricted to traditional ESL learners, I looked at the ESL usage of *the* and compared it to the G1.5 usage to check for qualitative differences. Results indicated that the 'Textual' and 'Situation' uses of the article were similar in both groups and showed no particular problems. There were, however, some qualitative

differences in the ungrammatical or questionable uses of *the* between the G1.5 and ESL students. Examples below will illustrate:

ESL examples

Cultural

4oo. <… As **the** Lord Chesterfield said in his letter, 18th century's people trusted much more…> (esl0501rr)

4pp. <… **The** 21st people believe that exchanging view points or opinions…> (esl0501rr)

Structural

4qq. <… they would not be able to exchange **the** view points or opinions…> (esl0507cc)

4rr. < In 18th century, **the** etiquette in noble group society was extremely crucial…> (esl0511cc)

G1.5 examples

Structural ok, but cultural overuse

4ss. <… Nowadays **the** women are more educated then **the** men, there are more women that have higher education…> (gen0052rr)

4tt. <… **The** wives' main duty was raising **the** children and taking care of **the** house…> (gen0053rr)

Structural

4uu. <...Everyone in town would gather and talk about **the** goods and bad during the year…> (gen0034de)

4vv. <… there were no even any space to socialize on the free time…> (gen0050rr)

4ww. <… Most of **the** modern families are very independent than **the** families in the past…> (gen0050rr)

The ESL examples above illustrate traditional problems seen with article usage. In 4oo and 4pp, the student has inserted *the* in front of a proper name and a specific group of people; both situations which should take the null article. In examples 4qq and 4rr, the students have inserted the definite article before a non-specific plural noun (*view points*) and before a noncount noun (*etiquette*); again both situations where a null article would be called for.

The G1.5 students do not demonstrate those same issues with their article overuse. In examples 4ss and 4tt, I did not classify the uses of *the* as ungrammatical, since the underlined referent nouns can be used with the definite article, but here contrasts with the more general

semantic context in which it appears, marking this structure as less familiar or 'Cultural'. This would also be the case with the second underlined phrase in 4ww, *than **the** families in the past*. The 'Structural' problems with *the* as articulated by the G1.5 students demonstrate very different issues than the ESL students above. In 4vv, we could argue that *free time* is a type of idiomatic expression used without an article; the student's insertion of the article here suggests a familiarity with the expression but with an obvious error. The noun phrase in 4ww represents a related issue. The student seems to be conflating two forms of a phrase: *most of the* _____ and *most* _____. Whereas *families* can be used with the article, this instance represents a structural problem because of the familiar semantic context, rather than an idiomatic one; in this instance the student needs to omit both the preposition and the *the*. Finally, the example in 4uu, ***the** goods and bad*, exhibits several structural problems. The article and plural suffix on *good* suggest the meaning of the noun to be other than the student intended; had the student meant *goods* in the sense of *products*, then he would have needed the parallel structure of the article with the subsequent noun. However, as that clearly was not his intended meaning, it could be argued that he is trying to use *good and bad* as a type of idiomatic pairing, but doesn't quite get the form right or the grammatical structure to work in his sentence.

G1.5 use of demonstrative determiners and definite articles adds to an analysis of ideational voice since it points to their focus on specific referents, even where grammatically inappropriate, and indicates that they are positioning themselves in the academic discourse community as distinct from NS students and ESL students.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the ways in which G1.5 writers position themselves ideationally as compared to the other two student groups. The data reveal that all the students use semantics and elements of grammar to indicate their interests, beliefs and perspectives on

reality. While there are certain conventions and expectations of student writers in the academy, the G1.5 students differ from the other two groups in that their over-representation of personal examples and grammatical elements associated with narratives and/or conversational English mark their knowledge-making as more subjective and situated in local experience than that of their ESL or NS counterparts. They consistently make lexical and topic choices distinct from the other two groups and relevant to their personal experiences. Their lexico-grammatical choices, such as verb forms, locative and temporal adverbs, and exemplification markers, all support their self-representation in the text and present knowledge to the reader(s) based on lived experience. Even their use of determiners indicates the importance they place on specific referents and indicates usage difficulties not typically associated with expected NNS practice. While there are expectations and conventions in the academic discourse community, the data suggests that G1.5 students take elements from conversation and narrative blended with their own interests, concerns and preferences in an attempt to present and represent the resources of knowledge they present to others.

Ivanič and Camps (2001) note that the three types of positioning (ideational, interpersonal, and textual) appear simultaneously and often have overlapping features. In the following chapter, I will examine features which I have already considered to indicate interpersonal positioning, though they have commonalities with what has already been discussed. In this way, a stronger argument can be made for G1.5 self-representation in their academic writing.

CHAPTER 5:
INTERPERSONAL POSITIONING

> *"… In writing this essay about Allison's 'This Is Our World', I will mention my personal experience about this dialogue."* (gen0095rr)

5.1 Introduction and Rationale

While the ideational function of language is concerned with writing *about* something, the interpersonal function is concerned with written interaction *between* writer and reader. This dimension of communication is concerned with conveying messages about the writers' relationship with the readers, their degree of certainty and sense of self. By this definition, then, interpersonal positioning uses lexis and grammar as a means for a writer to self-represent in a text. In Chapter 4, I posited that student writers self-represent in texts via various means to which they attribute knowledge and understanding. As discussed in the previous chapter, the G1.5 student writers used semantic choices, exemplification, and narration of lived experience as a way to demonstrate their knowledge. Simultaneously, they position themselves with a particular sense of their own authority and in relationship with readers. That is, features which were attributed to ideational positioning in Chapter 4 could also be included in this chapter as evidence of interpersonal positioning. In this chapter, however, I will focus on additional features which will be analyzed with a view to determining what the G1.5 students' personal role is in their writing. Features such as pronouns, questions, and conjunctions will be examined in light of the role they typically play in academic discourse versus the role they play in G1.5 essays. Through analysis of the data, it will be seen that G1.5 students express a sense of certainty in their writing and engage the reader(s) using lexico-grammatical elements associated with academic, conversational, and narrative functions, marking their texts as having distinct genre differences from the academic writing of NS and ESL students.

5.2 Pronouns

The role of pronouns in interpersonal positioning cannot be minimized since, for example, self-referencing through first person pronouns or expressing solidarity with readers through first and second person pronouns are obvious indicators of the writer's presence in a text. In addition, the over-representation of pronouns in the G1.5 corpus suggests that starting a discussion of interpersonal positioning with an analysis of pronoun use seems appropriate.

5.2.1 Possessive Determiners and Pronouns

Of all the pro-forms overused by G1.5 students, the most significant frequency difference marked possessive determiners and pronouns. The list of possessive forms (see Table 5.1) that appear salient indicate that first and third person markers appear particularly relevant in G1.5 essays. First person pronoun use was discussed extensively in Module II and will be discussed again below, as results of this study were significantly different regarding first person pronoun use than the original pilot study. The reflexive forms appearing on Table 5.1, such as *my_self* (rather than *myself*) and *their_selves,* were included in the list because of spelling and/or formation errors on the part of the students.

Possessive	**Frequency**	**Poss.**	**Freq.**	**Poss.**	**Freq.**	**Poss.**	**Freq.**
their	602	your	111	my_own	10	his/her	2
our	423	their_own	53	our_self[32]	8	our_selves	1
her	356	our_own	27	your_own	6	your_self	1
my	345	her_own	17	stories-my_own	3	their_selves	1
his	259	its_own	16	her_self	2	his/her_own	1
its	171	his_own	15	my_self	2	its_self	1

Table 5.1: Possessive determiners and pronouns in G1.5 corpus

[32] The underscore symbol (_) appearing in the pronoun form indicates a cluster or multi-word 'chunk'. It should also be noted that, where students typed *there* but the word was followed by a noun, *WMatrix 2* lists the term as an entry for *their*, the possessive determiner. There were several of these in the data and all were correctly tagged by the computer program.

Based on their knowledge of English reflexive pronouns, the students here have applied a formation rule of possessive pronoun + *-self* = reflexive pronoun; this suggests an important area of both interlanguage study and dialect study, as this is a formation seen in many non-standard dialects of English, to which some of these students would have been exposed. Unfortunately, the scope of this study does not allow for research into interlanguage development or dialect acquisition. Therefore, those entries should not have been counted as possessive determiners in the corpus, but as misspelled reflexive pronouns and will not be considered here.

Biber et al (1999:270-272,340-342) review the distribution of possessive determiners and pronouns and demonstrate that, with the exception of *our, their*, and *its*, they are far more common in conversation and fictional narratives than in academic prose. This is not a surprise considering the results of data concerning verbs and other lexico-grammatical features, which were discussed in reference to ideational positioning, represented features generally found in fiction and in conversation. In particular, the many occurrences of first person singular, second person, and third person singular pro-forms point to narrative and conversational lexical choices, using specific references and examples to guide a reader to an understanding of a topic being discussed. It suggests that the G1.5 students are engaged with the reader in terms of providing examples and claiming authority. It might also suggest that, if students are learning forms and strategies implicitly rather than explicitly, the G1.5 students are calling on strategies with which they are familiar through conversation and fiction rather than the less familiar domain of academic language use.

However, there is evidence of other possessive forms which are more frequent in different domains and can provide further insight into interpersonal positioning in G1.5 writing. *Our* appears more frequently in written registers (including academic) than in conversation and *its* and *their*, especially when referring to non-human entities, are most

common in news and academic writing (Biber et al 1999:271). Though *our* is more common in academic writing because of its inclusive nature[33], G1.5 use of *our* is sometimes purely narrative, recounting elements of a personal story for purposes of exemplification:

> 5a. <…We had 4 kids in **our** family and every one knew that this evening around 9 or 10 o'clock we are going to drink something special…> (gen0035de)
>
> 5b. <…**Our** granddad had no teeth left, but he loved kytya as well…> (gen0036de)
>
> 5c. <… **Our** family could be classified somewhere in between…> (gen0055rr)
>
> 5d. <… Last year in my high school **our** school was caught up in the talk about the genocide occurring in Sudan…> (gen0100rr)
>
> 5e. <… and I went on an assessment website for houses in **our** county. We research **our** house's assessment…> (gen0124rp)

In the G1.5 corpus, 5% of the occurrences of *our* (22 occurrences) were this type of personal reference. This compares to 0% in the NS corpus and 2% (7 occurrences) in the ESL corpus. It should also be noted that these personal examples were employed not only in descriptive essays, where one might expect them, but also in reader-response essays and research reports, where students were instructed to use text examples and references, not personal ones. However, the use of personal examples positions the student as the authority in the text, representing a kind of power relationship with the reader.

The majority of uses of the possessive *our* are inclusive in nature and intimate a relationship between writer and reader, where the writer is using the first person plural to represent a group affiliation to which both writer and reader belong:

> 5f. <…Who knows, may be one day she [Hillary Clinton] will be elected as a president of the USA, and **our** country as well as the whole world will benefit from her presidency…> (gen0056rr)
>
> 5g. <… **Our** real lives hold within them **our** royal lives; the inspiration to be more than we are...> (gen0104cc)
>
> 5h. <… Where is the initial point of corruption and dirtiness of **our** society?> (gen103rr)

[33] More detail about first person pronoun use will be discussed below.

This use of *our* was the most prevalent in both the NS and ESL corpora as well (809 occurrences and 253 occurrence, respectively), though the possessive determiner is overused in the G1.5 corpus (see Tables 3.8 & 5.1). This is significant for three reasons:

1. It suggests a common usage of a feature among all three student groups.
2. It suggests that G1.5 students are not only incorporating features of conversation or fiction in their texts, but they are also over-representing some features which are associated with academic writing. This could suggest that there is awareness on their part of a difference between academic and other forms of writing, but that their knowledge of strategies and conventions is restricted.
3. It suggests that, though the feature is used similarly by all students, the G1.5 students over-represented this feature in their texts, thereby more often trying to establish solidarity with their readers as a strategy in their writing.

As mentioned above, *its* and in many cases *their* are more prevalent in news and academic writing (Biber et al 1999:271) and are often considered to be preferable to first person use because they help to create a distance between the subject matter and the writer's sense of subjectivity (Hinkel 2002:87). However their over-representation in the G1.5 corpus suggests a different use by these students. While *its* was often used for non-human subject matter, *their* refers to human subjects in 100% of occurrences. Unlike the inclusive *our*, oftentimes this possessive determiner indicates an objective generalization of a group separate from the writer. In addition, the writer may use *their* to refer to a specific plural agent in a narrative sense. Examples include:

Generalized *their*

5i. <They leave **their** country because most of them do not fit in with the majority of native state…> (gen0079rp)

5j. <… Some parents would be as harsh as sending **their** children back to Asia or even locking them up until they find someone of **their** choice…> (gen0080rp)

5k. <… People who use **their** imagination are harder to control than people who don?t…> (gen109cc)

5l. <… people were depending on themselves by sharing together **their** belonging with their clansmen...> (gen0088ee)

Specific *their*

5m. <… It took the blacksmith couple of days to make this oven. They build it with **their** own experiences and a little technology…> (gen0030de)

5n. <… The couple has demonstrated through **their** journey that greater satisfaction will come out of experience…> (gen00157ca)

5o. <… art teachers are using his paintings as examples. To teach **their** students about Guernica…> (gen0120rp)

5p. <…couple under Virginia ban of interracial marriages were convicted of the crime of **their** marriage…> (gen0080rp)

Again it is important to note that both uses of *their* appear across a variety of essay types; even narrative examples appear in critical texts and research reports as well as descriptive essays. Therefore, while G1.5 students do use *their* to further their narrative examples, there is also the usage which aids in projecting a distanced voice, making generalizations which the reader is expected to accept, again creating a relationship of authority of writer over reader.

Where ESL students used *their*, the context appears to be 100% of the time referent to a human subject. The NS corpus provided an additional aspect of this usage, with a few examples of a very formal, distanced use of *their* and always in the environment of the pronoun, *one*, as in the following examples:

5q. <…**One** must keep **their** eyes set on the light and do whatever necessary to gain success…> (nss1018rr)

5r. <…**One** must also be intelligent in **their** field of choice…> (nss1020rr)

This stylized version of the pronouns appeared only in one essay assignment and this will be discussed below in Chapter 6 in a discussion of the effect of essay prompts.

5.2.2 First Person Pronouns: We, Us

As mentioned above, the importance of examining the role first person pronouns play in G1.5 writing cannot be minimized, since this thesis is attempting to identify these students in terms of their self-representation in text; first person pronouns provide the most obvious signal of the writer's presence in the text. In Module II, I reviewed in detail current literature

on the teaching of first person pronoun use to NS and NNS student writers, as well as the findings in current studies on first person pronoun use among professional and novice, and NS and NNS writers. I reported that, in my pilot study, first person pronoun use was more frequent in NNS (both G1.5 and ESL) essays than in NS essays and suggested six categories of interpretation/ meaning represented by the use of the first person pronoun. Results from this larger study were not able to be generalized and need revisiting. In this final study, the first person singular pronoun, *I,* was employed more by all three student groups than was the plural form, but distribution calculations indicate that *I* was overused by the NS students in comparison to both corpora representing NNS; I will argue below that the discrepancy was due to the effect of the writing prompts and inclusion of early drafts in the pilot corpora. As in the earlier study, results from this study indicate that first person plural pronouns, *we* and *us,* are overused by G1.5 students as compared to both ESL and NS writers, but with a much larger margin of difference between the G1.5 and NS log likelihoods (see Table 3.8) than the Module II pilot reported. Module II study results illustrated a much smaller discrepancy in the frequency of the plurals, though the G1.5 students did have the highest numbers as they do here in the larger study.

Although it is inappropriate to repeat here the research presented in Module II, the difference in results in this study does warrant further discussion of first person plural pronoun use. A question raised by Module II concerned the definition of *we* for the G1.5 student group: who comprises the community represented by *we?* For a group of students who have often been marginalized, *we* might be experienced by them as 'my [ethnic] community' and not 'my academic community'. Analysis of over-representation of *we* and *us* here will allow for speculation of writer identity and expression and the interpersonal positioning of these students expressed in their writing.

Research analyzing first person pronoun use in professional and student writing is often contradictory. Biber et al (1999:328-335) state that personal pronouns in general are far more prevalent in conversation than in writing, though they appear frequently in fiction writing, perhaps due to the occurrences of dialogue written in fiction, and that plural pronouns are used less frequently than the singular forms. In a different publication, Biber (2006:50-52) provides more details of academic/university use of personal pronouns and states that first person pronouns are used in all spoken university registers, but nearly nonexistent in writing (articles, textbooks, syllabi, etc.). This contradicts research by Chang & Swales (1999), Hyland (2002c), Kuo (1999), and others[34] which suggests that published articles frequently use first person pronouns, and Kuo (1999) and Breivega et al (2002) who argue that the plural pronouns are employed more often than the singular counterparts in order to express solidarity; the frequency of usage seems to vary by discipline. In literature comparing NS and NNS student essays, Petch-Tyson (1998) found first person pronoun use to be less frequent in NS essays, whereas Hinkel (2002) argues the opposite. Hyland (2002a) and Tang & John (1999) cite evidence suggesting that student writers produce fewer personal pronouns than professional writers and, along with Charles (2002) and Kuo (1999), suggest the environments and discourse functions of student-used pronouns are more limited.

The results of the data study here support neither Petch-Tyson's (1998) nor Hinkel's (2002) results; the data here concludes that *I* was overused by NS, while the first person plural forms (*we*, *us*) are overused by the G1.5 students. These data results differ from results reported in Module II. In examining the meanings, environments, and collocations for the pronouns, I began with the categories I detailed in Module II (see Appendix E for chart and details of the six categories). I found that assigning each pronoun use to a category was more

[34] Please refer to Module II for a more complete review of research on first person pronoun use in professional and student (NS & NNS) academic writing.

difficult with the plural pronouns and that the distribution differed from data used in the pilot study.

Category of *We/Us* & *percentage of occurrences*	**Examples from G1.5 Student Corpora**
***We/Us* as representative** **~72% of occurrences**	<…The human race needs to see, that **we** might have evolved from animals at one period of time and that **we** evolved into something that adapted…> (gen0009rp) <… **We** are better than computers, and **we** should always strive for more than what **we** can get.> (gen0165rr) <… **we** cannot live without food…> (gen0030de) <… **We** have knowledge make **us** less scared and less intimidating…> (gen0096rr)
***We/Us* as guide** **~2% of occurrences**	<… **We** can compare a modern style of life to one that existed thirty to fifty years ago…> (gen0049rr) <… In this essay **we** will take a look at the two different authors, who introduce the reader to the power of art and **we** will analyze and compare the two points of view.> (gen0110cc)
***We/Us* as recounter** **~7% of occurrences**	<… His main idea was that **we** live in a free country and that the government supports everyone's rights…> (gen0062ab) <… The author's point in this dialogue is to give **us** information about her thoughts and expressions on art…> (gen0095rr) <… Winterson stales [states] that **We** have to admit that the arts stimulate and satisfy a part of **our** nature that would otherwise be left untouched……..Winterson is saying **we all** have different emotions by **our own** experience…> (gen0159ca)
***We/Us* as source** **~16% of occurrences**	<… **We** lived in Lviv's suburb of Dublyani. **We** were coming home in a bus which took right to the center of Dublyani…> (gen0026de) <… My mom told **us** that **we** should go back before **we** became their favorite buyers that pay…> (gen0033de) <… I was in high school. In class, **we** were studying about Vincent van Gogh's pieces and **we** had to choose one of them to draw…> (gen0168ab)
***We/Us* as opinion-holder** **~3% of occurrences**	<.. but in reality this is what every one of **us** should do.…> (gen0104cc) <… Based on the essay, I think **we** should depend on the word "truth" rather than seeking the word "managing information"> (gen00185cc)
***We/Us* as originator** **<1% of occurrences**	<… By the way, thanks to these programs, **we** can learn something new and good for ourselves and for our children as well…> (gen0042rr) <… Like the title of the essay, **we** have to make the "owl" not to fly away because the "owl" represents the "wisdom"…> (gen0166rr)

Table 5.2: Examples of *we, us* from G1.5 corpora

In Module II, I argued that an exclusive use of *we/us*, where the pronouns indicated the 'source' of information as in narrative examples, represented the most frequent use by G1.5 students by quite a large margin (82%)[35]. In this larger study, an inclusive use of *we/us*, where the writer uses the pronoun to signal a universal truth for all humans or assumes solidarity with the reader, accounts for a larger percentage of occurrences (~72%). Reasons for the change in distribution can be attributed to the influence of the essay prompts, which will be discussed in Chapter 6, and the inclusion of draft versions of essays in the Module II corpus, resulting in some repetition of data. Another reason for the difference in distribution could be the amount of ambiguity in the usage of these pro-forms. Whereas *I* phrases were fairly straightforward to interpret, *we/us* phrases often appeared ambiguous in interpretation and required a close look at the surrounding context. For example, many examples of *we/us*, which could be assigned to the 'recounter' category, as they refer to interpreting something a writer has written, could also be assigned to the opinion-holder category as the students' interpretations were often injected with their opinions:

> 5s. <… In conclusion, I think that Allison really attempted to convince **us** that art has the power to uncover what is hidden. She also meant to teach **us** the appreciation of art, and that really helped **us** understand her advice and facts about art. Sometimes, I think it is really necessary to know the concepts and meaning of art, because it gives you an idea about what art is in **our** society and how it differs from other things.> (gen0095rr)
>
> 5t. <…**We** must believe that **we** want to earn money to buy things **we** donnot[student's spelling] need..> (gen0108cc)

In example 5s, the student, on the one hand, recounts or explains her interpretation of the author's article; however, the student's interpretation includes words and phrases which suggest more than a restatement of the author's words, but slants the reading to incorporate her opinion. Besides the obvious *I think*, the degree adverb *really* before the verb *attempted* suggests that student has uncovered a hidden agenda on Allison's part. The verb *meant* also

[35] 'Source' indicates the writer is using the pronoun in a personal example, inserted as an example or evidence in the text. Please see Appendix E for further explanation and examples.

suggests that the student is going beyond Allison's words to include opinion. Similarly, example 5t illustrates some difficulty in placing some pronouns in the representative category when they are included in a clause which begins with an opinion verb, *believe*. Therefore, placement of many of these pronouns into the appropriate use category was sometimes unclear and always required looking at surrounding content. This also indicates the G1.5 writer's interpersonal positioning in the text; that is, the student is using evaluative terms along with the inclusive pronoun to not only suggest solidarity with the reader but also to guide the reader to a particular conclusion or way of thinking about a topic. This, along with the inclusion of more data using different writing prompts and removing early drafts of essays from the corpora, alter the conclusions I came to in Module II, where I indicated that *we* was 'source' in the majority of uses, rather than 'representative'. This somewhat alters my view of G1.5 student writing. That is, in Module II, I suggested that G1.5 students interacted with the reader as the authority in the text, using their personal experiences as evidence to prove a claim. While students do use personal examples as 'source' materials (see also Chapter 4), their abundant use of *we/us* as 'representative' indicates that they are doing more than narrating personal stories; in the majority of uses, the writer is acting as proxy for a larger group and using the pronoun to signal some universal or common property. Thus, they are interacting with the readers by both indicating authority and expressing solidarity.

5.2.3 Third Person Pronouns: S/he, It

The third person pronoun forms, *she, he, s/he, he and she*, overused by the G1.5 students are typically used in anaphoric reference and, according to research, are most often employed in conversation and in fictional narrative (Biber et al 1999:333-335; Halliday 2004:554-555). Biber (2006:50-51) and Biber et al (1999:333-334) argue that *s/he* forms are relatively rare in academic writing; Hinkel (2002:87-88) claims that, where such references exist, they are likely to be third person rather than first person pronouns since third person

pronouns help to create a sense of objectivity and distance on the part of the writer. Hinkel also maintains that NNS use them more than NS students when writing for the academy (2002:88). Though these pronouns are more frequent in the G1.5 data, my data contradicts Hinkel's suggestion that these pronouns offer students a form of distance and objectivity, since the G1.5 students prefer to use these pronouns to recount personal or other narratives.

There are no unexpected environments of *s/he* usage in the data. In all three corpora, the pronouns are used to refer to persons in a narrative the student is sharing as supportive evidence in an essay or to refer to an author cited, an artist discussed, a person mentioned in a reading, or the human subject in an advertisement. In only one instance in the ESL corpus did a student use *she* to refer to an inanimate object, a type of food, in an attempt at personification:

> 5u. <… Gu-Jeol-Pan is that one dish for me and it is a wonderful dish. The octagonal plate carried various sweet colorful ingredients, and so do my memories and the sweet feelings towards the Pan. "**She**"[student's quotation marks] will always be a part of my life, spinning gracefully as her colorful dress flows around her.> (esl0549de)

Biber et al (2002:334) discuss sex role biases in the distribution of masculine versus feminine references, stating that the most extreme differences are found in news reports and academic prose where masculine pronouns appear three times more frequently than the feminine counterpart. This was a surprising find in this data. In the G1.5 corpus, 61% of the *s/he* forms used were feminine and only 39% masculine; ESL students split the two at 50% each and NS student writers used *he* in 54% of their occurrences versus 46% usage of *she*. I was careful to check both NNS data for errors in gender assignment of pronouns, as that was sometimes problematic in draft copies for those students whose L1 does not employ masculine and feminine pronouns (see examples 5v and 5w below). However, in the final copies of essays studied here, all gendered pronoun references were assigned properly. The

discrepancy in the increased use of *she* versus *he* in the G1.5 corpus could be accounted for in two ways:

1) The use of these pronouns in personal examples often centered around family and food, with G1.5 students more often referring to mothers and grandmothers in these contexts than the other student groups.

2) For seemingly random reasons, G1.5 students chose to write more often about essays or articles written by women, more so than the other student groups.

As mentioned above, pronoun gender assignment was sometimes problematic in draft copies of student essays. Though a digression from the discussion of interpersonal positioning, I would like to discuss this issue briefly as it provides some insight into G1.5 writing and their developmental process. Biber et al (1999: 331), Halliday (2004:554-555) and Hinkel (2002:88) refer to potential problems with pronoun usage in written contexts. In conversation, where extra linguistic cues help the listener follow the dialogue, using pronouns to span several sentences can often disrupt the cohesion in the discourse. Where experienced writers might restate the referent noun for further elaboration or to indicate a new rhetorical stage, often, inexperienced writers, especially NNS (Hinkel 2002:88), do not strengthen cohesion with lexical substitution. An example to illustrate from the G1.5 corpus includes:

> 5v. <… Ray Beverly wrote about Picasso and how **his** art is important during Spanish civil war and after the war. Picasso is an art painter. In 1937, there was the Spanish Civil War. It was in Guernica. **He** "was the first one to correspond to reach Guernica" (2). Picasso was during the civil war, **he** was painting the background. For example "the flames and smoke and grit, and smell of burning human flesh nauseating. Houses were collapsing into the inferno" (Ray, Beverly 1). So **he** was explaining what was going on.
> **He** is known as political art. **He** used art symbols to show the truth. And that was a big issue to the citizens because **he** refused to explain the symbolism. **He** stated "It's not up to the painter to explain them or other wise it would be better if **he** wrote them out. **He** believes that the viewer should translate the symbols in a personally meaningful manner…> (gen0120rp)

Here, in example 5v, the student writer jumps back and forth with the use of third person pronoun forms between discussing the critic, Ray Beverly, and Picasso. The anaphoric reference is not always clear, particularly towards the end of the section, where the writer

quotes Beverly and refers to Beverly's idea but does not re-name the author. Other context clues to the conversational style of this student's writing include the sentence that begins "So **he** was explaining…". The adverb, *so*, which appeared in Table 3.5 as a keyword in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the ESL corpus, here signals a kind of conclusion the writer is drawing and is a device used to lead the listener to the speaker's next point.

Personal pronoun use in academic discourse is an area where studying both draft and final copies of essays was beneficial; I often indicated to students on draft essays that they had included faulty/unclear pronoun references. One example comparing an earlier draft with a later one illustrates the point:

> Draft 2 of Compare/Contrast Assignment
> 5w. <… In "*Imagination and Reality*" by Jeanette Winterson shows kind of supportive approach toward Ewen. As Ewen provides large part of how style affects marketing and sales by providing lot of examples of companies and people, Winterson supports **him** based **his** own experience, money culture, and imagination… In Jeanette Winterson's "*Imagination and Reality*," **he** agrees and supports with Ewen's statement which that development of new style of objects affects marketing and sales… Ewen used one of Calkin's words to describe this cycle by saying, "Beauty is introduced into material objects," **he** continued to explain that it was, "to enhance them in the eyes of the purchaser" (Ewen, 182). This quote defines the description of power and ability of the advertisement. In Winterson's essay, there is an agreement between Ewen's statement about the power of a advertising. In Winterson's essay, **he** tells about the habits of human beings. As **he** mentions this subject, **he** also said, "Our minds work to continually label and absorb what we see and to fit it neatly into our own pattern." (Winterson, 603)> (gen0240cc)
>
> Final draft of same assignment written by the same student
> 5x. <…In *Imagination and Reality* by Jeanette Winterson, **she** explains that our money culture sets up a pattern for us; a pattern involving working most of the day in order to afford to buy things we *think* we need. This consumer mentality is offered to us as "real life" (Winterson, 599). **She** also support for Ewen's approach. Ewen provides a large part of how style affects marketing and sales by providing a lot of examples of companies and people. Winterson upholds **him** based on **her own** experience and historical aspects… In Jeanette Winterson's *Imagination and Reality*, **she** agrees and supports Ewen's statement, that development of new style of objects affects marketing and sales… Ewen used one of Calkin's ideas to describe this cycle by saying, "Beauty is introduced into material objects," (Ewen, 182) **he** continued to explain that it was, "to enhance them in the eyes of the purchaser" (Ewen, 182). This quote defines the description of power and the ability of the advertisement. In Winterson's essay, there is an agreement between Ewen's statement about the power of an advertisement…> (gen0187cc)

In 5w above, several problems with pronoun use appear. First, the student often refers to the author, Winterson, who is a woman, as *he;* therefore the pronoun references are often unclear, particularly when the student is discussing two authors, Ewen and Winterson, one male and one female. When this student is referring to two male contributors, Ewen and Caulkin, the student's use of *he* is problematic as we do not know if he is quoting Ewen or Caulkin. By the final draft, this student has corrected the confusion as seen in example 5x. The Winterson references have been changed to *she* and the awkward construction referring to the Caulkin quote has been modified to create two sentences (though punctuation and capitalization are missing) which make the pronoun less ambiguous. These changes, along with other structural changes have made the sections clearer and less repetitive.

Returning to the main point of this chapter, third person, *it*, is over-represented by G1.5 students as compared to ESL students, but is not a salient feature difference between G1.5 and NS students; G1.5 students do use *it* more frequently than NS students, but with a log likelihood of only 5.53. Roughly, half of the uses of *it* have a reference to a particular object about which the student is writing. About half of the uses of the pronoun, however, appear in introductory *it*-constructions where the nonreferential subject pronoun has relatively little lexical content. Biber et al (1999:332-333) indicate that this is a common construction in academic writing, and is relevant to interpersonal positioning in that its use as subject in anticipatory clauses often indicates an evaluative position of the writer towards a statement made in the following extraposed clause, as in *<u>It would be nice</u> to elect a new president*.

Unlike Hinkel's (2002:89) results which indicated that NNS use the slot filler *it*-constructions significantly more frequently than NS student writers, this study suggests otherwise. As would be expected, collocations for *it*-constructions included primarily the

copula *be*. However, unlike other research results (Biber et al 1999, Hinkel 2002, Mak 2005), which found the linking verbs *appear* and *seem* and the modal auxiliaries, *may, might, can, could, should, would, will*, to be frequent collocates in *it*-subject constructions, those structures make remarkably little appearance in the G1.5 corpus. *Appear* occurs with introductory *it* only three times in this corpus and *seem* only ten. Modal use ranges from 5 occurrences (*may*) to 24 (*would, could, can*). Biber (1988) and Mak (2005) argue that the use of *it*-constructions using the above-mentioned modals and linking verbs are employed in formal writing as a means for the writer to introduce a claim while maintaining a level of detachment. The use of the modal auxiliaries as a hedging device (Biber et al 1999; Halliday 2004; Hunston 2004; Hunston & Thompson 2003; Hyland 1998, 2001, 2002b; Hyland & Milton 1997) is often reported in academic writing. In the G1.5 corpus, however, it would seem that students were less concerned about softening their claims and preferred *it*-structures using primarily a form of *to be* followed by adjectives or nouns, such as *important, possible, hard, something*, many of the words which appeared in the 'Difficulty' semantic category (see Table 4.3). Typical examples from the corpus include:

> 5y. <…For many men, **it** is hard to understand the female rational, and **it** is even harder to understand their reasoning> (gen0193ca)
>
> 5z. <…**It** is just unbelievable how Botero was able to channel most of his pain and convert **it** into art…> (gen0179rp)
>
> 5aa. <…After few weeks **it** is possible to notice that there are beaten track on the grass since **it** was trodden.> (gen0107cc)

Comparing G1.5 use of *it* constructions to the other two corpora indicated that both G1.5 and NS students used the pronoun as a nonreferential subject in about half its appearances. NS students, however, did not use 'Difficulty' or other adjectives following *it* + *to be* construction with as much regularity as G1.5 students. In fact, adjectives like *difficult, necessary, possible* are either nonexistent or appear in fewer than ten instances. ESL

students, on the other hand, use *it* less frequently than the other two student groups and most frequently in reference to a specific noun(s) in their texts.

5.2.4 Contradictory Results? - Second Person Pronoun: You

Thus far, I have demonstrated how the over-representation of pronoun forms by the G1.5 students indicates their interpersonal positioning in a variety of ways. They often express solidarity with the reader via the use of inclusive first person forms, use third person forms to refer to human referents to exemplify something to the reader, and express opinion using the nonreferential *it* with *to be* + adjective. Some of these uses, I have argued, are more consistent with conversation or in opposition to research which names these features as giving a sense of objectivity to academic writing. Seemingly in contrast to these results are the frequency numbers for the pronoun, *you*. While pronoun use overall was higher in the G1.5 corpus, subcategories of pronouns showed different frequencies in relation to the other corpora. *You*, for example, represents an extremely different frequency of usage as it was the most underused feature in the G1.5 corpus overall as compared to the NS corpus by a large log likelihood:

# of occurrences in NS corpus	**Rel. Freq.**	**# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus**	**Rel. Freq.**	**LL – NS vs. G1.5**	**# of occurrences in ESL corpus**	**Rel. Freq.**	**LL – NS vs. ESL**
1998	0.71	390	0.38	142.38	239	0.27	261.05

Table 5.3: Occurrences and saliency of *you* in three corpora

Compared to usage in the ESL corpus, G1.5 students overused the pronoun; however, usage of *you* by both of these student groups was far lower than the NS students.

Second person pronouns mark direct appeals and communication with the reader and are often considered inappropriate in academic writing (Hacker 1994, Hinkel 2002:87, Petch-Tyson 1998:109) and are a common feature in spoken English (Biber 1999:333-34, Granger & Rayson 1998:126, Petch-Tyson 1998:109). We would, therefore, expect this to be an overused feature in the G1.5 corpus; however, examination of the corpora indicated that

usually where G1.5 students would use a first person pronouns, NS students would prefer the more distanced *you* form. Examples from a NS and a G1.5 student responding to the same writing prompt illustrate:

> 5cc. <What it comes down to is, if **you** think its art, then its art. Of course, not everyone will agree with **you**.> (nss1272rp)
>
> 5dd. < **We** live, **we** suffer, **we** feel and **we** understand the differences between these. This is what makes **us** human. **We** are knowledgeable. Art should provoke familiar feelings.> (gen0178rp)

Both examples come from conclusions to research reports asking students to define art. Where the G1.5 student uses first person plural repeatedly in his conclusion to include the reader in his argument of what makes art, the NS student chooses the second person to make an appeal to his reader.

Like *we, you* is often used with different intended referents, referring sometimes to people in general and/or to the addressee specifically. Examples to illustrate from both G1.5 and NS corpora include:

> Referring to people in general
> 5ee. <…For example, **you** might make suggestions to your boss about a project, but while **you** are talking to your boss, **you** look away. This shows that **you'**re not confident and maybe **you** donnot know what **you** are talking about. Likewise, when your boss is telling **you** some suggestions on a project and **you** are not looking at him, it shows **you** donnot care what he is suggesting…> (gen0002rr)
>
> 5ff. <**[You]** Always look people in the eye because it shows **you'**re interested in what they have to say…> (nss1005rr)
>
> Referring to the addressee
> 5gg. <… **[You]**Let me tell **you** about my favorite food…> (gen0034de)
>
> 5hh. <… it a meal that **you** will never forget!> (nss1111de)

As indicated in Chapter 4, example 5ee uses the exemplification phrase, *for example*, to set up a scenario in order to demonstrate his/her point to the reader. The NS student in example 5ff, however, chooses an imperative structure to make a similar point. Both G1.5 and NS students address their readers specifically in examples 5gg and 5hh, creating solidarity with

readers regarding a personal example of favourite foods. However, the G1.5 example employs first person pronoun forms to create a dialogue with the reader, a specific reference to him/herself and his/her favourite food; while the NS student address *you*, the reader, specifically, the reference to the favourite food type is via the third person pronoun, *it*, taking a more distanced stance than the G1.5 writer between the expression of a personal example in the written academic form.

It should be noted that examples 5ee-hh above not only represent similar uses of *you*, but also indicate nearly identical uses in essays using the same prompts. While NS students overused *you* as compared to G1.5 students, the environments where they appear were similar.

5.2.5 Summary of Pronoun Discussion

In summation, the over-representation of pronouns by G1.5 students suggests that these students are engaged both with their texts and their readers. They use pronouns to create solidarity, narrate events, report research and other information, and even to further their opinion, both in the environment where *we* was employed and in the nonreferential *it* structures. Some of these uses are typically associated with academic writing and some are associated with conversation and narrative. NS students used *it* in similar proportion to G.15 students, though not in the same nonreferential environments. NS students also overused first person singular (more about this will be discussed in regard to essay prompts in Chapter 6) and second person pronouns as compared to the other student groups. Though this would seem to contradict analysis that G1.5 students use less formal elements in their writing, the results in fact indicate that there is some overlap in the way these students present themselves in text, and qualitative analysis of different uses suggest that students are at different developmental stages of writing and choose different strategies for interrelating to the text material and their reader(s).

5.3 Questions

A surprising observation from the data involved the number of questions both G1.5 and ESL students employed into their essays using *we/us*. In general, direct questions are normally underrepresented in academic writing and are more common in conversation by at least 50% (Biber et al 1999:211; Chang & Swales 1999:148). In these data, too, questions are not an over-represented feature; however their presence, particularly using first person pronouns, serves as a method of engaging the reader as well as a strategy for introducing and concluding the ideas they explore in their texts. As we will see below, NS student examples from comparable essay assignments use more traditional forms of introducing and concluding an academic essay.

Hyland (2002d) and Thompson (2001) both argue that the use of questions in academic writing highlight the interactive and rhetorical function of academic writing, serving very different purposes than questions in conversation. Since interrogative clauses were not a salient feature in any of the three corpora, I am not proposing a detailed analysis here; however, it was interesting to note that 4% (39) of the occurrences of *we/us* in the G1.5 corpus and 5% (35) in the ESL corpus appeared in interrogative clauses, primarily in the conclusions of texts, with a few examples from the G1.5 corpus appearing in introductions. The questions usually appear in clusters. This structure only appeared in one NS essay, as a part of the writer's concluding paragraph. Hyland describes this usage as serving "…a framing purpose, sought to position the research in terms of its significance to the field or readers, or raise the unanswered issues which followed from the completed work" (2002d:542). I would also add that in these data these clusters represent the interpersonal relationship between the writer and reader, and suggest a degree of certainty and/or solidarity as indicated through the lexis. Examples to illustrate include:

From introductions:

5ii. <… And you really have to be looking at things through silly pink glasses in order to pretend that you do not see it. Why is it the way it is? Why?

Oh, if only **we** could freeze for a moment and go back in time to where it had all began! How awesome would that be to unlock the forbidden and, have the power over it, try to fix it! But even if **we** were given that unique opportunity, in what direction would **we** go? Where is the initial point of corruption and dirtiness in **our** society?> (gen0103rr)

5jj. <… Daily readings that **we** do everyday, newspapers, emails internet, signs, words on television, come flooding in through **our** eyes to **our** brain. But what do **we** do with this overwhelming information? Clearly **we** cannot remember all of them. So how do **we** manage **our** information? How do **we** use them? Are **we** "truly" reading?> (gen0164rr)

From conclusions:

5kk. <…**We** believe what **we** see or what **we** are told is true. **We** do not question it. **We** assume it is **our** reality. Is **our** world created on **our** reality? Or are **we** living in a lie which is constantly repeated to **us**? And **we** believe it!> (gen00185cc)

5ll. <… Is there a place in **our** minds where moments of joy are kept alive? Should **we** seek out those moments and relive them as **we** please? Or will they overwhelm **us** by floating to the forefront of our senses?> (esl0552de)

Unlike the research samples in Hyland's (2002d) article, these questions do not indicate research topics to be discussed in the text or as a follow-up to the paper. In fact, examples 5ii-ll come from documents that were not research texts, but reader-response, compare-contrast and descriptive essays. Rather these students begin and/or end their essays in a distinctly non-academic way, engaging the reader in a type of rhetorical dialogue. In addition to first person pronouns – particularly inclusive *we* – these student writers use additional structures to establish solidarity with the reader. In 5ii, for example, the writer also addresses the reader directly as *you* and engages the reader to imagine something *awesome* and *power*ful. The adverb, *clearly*, in 5jj establishes a rapport with the reader, assuming that the connection is obvious to writer and reader both. The questions with pronoun clusters in the conclusions act as strategies of engagement and "serve not only to invest a problem with

significance, but also to invite the reader to explore an unresolved issue with the writer as an equal" (Hyland 2002d:546).

Examples from comparable NS student essays demonstrate the use of more conventional essay introductions and conclusions. Example 5mm below comes from a NS essay written for the same assignment as the essay sample in 5jj above, and Example 5nn from the conclusion to an essay written for the same prompt as the sample in 5kk above:

> 5mm. < For centuries the information world has been evolving. People today receive information in drastically different ways as opposed to those living in the sixteenth century. Some believe that it is a wonderful and much need change. Others condemn the new ways of interpreting information and the written word, concluding that people today just do not grasp the writings and wisdoms that people from years past have. Sven Birkerts' essay definitely opposes modern reading practices and he even goes as far to say that readers today elevate quantity over quality. I disagree with Birkerts because I believe that his idea of wisdom is amiss, and his hypothesis that people cannot understand anymore is particularly erroneous.> (NSS1235rr)

> 5nn. <Ultimately, Ewen and Winterson's essay provide the backdrop for the stage of American consumerism. They show how society is driven by money and therefore becomes strictly a "money culture." Ewen illustrates how companies utilize advertising and product enhancement to promote their products to status-hungry, money loving consumers who base their importance and value on possessions they own. Winterson relates imagination and beauty into this formula as they both are components, which compromise materialism. Ewen and Winterson depict how American society has become obsessed with increasing status and wealth through the consumption of new upgraded and innovative products. They show how materialism feeds on consumers and their need and desire to fit into the dominant "money culture" influencing nearly every aspect of society.> (NSS1290cc)

The above NS samples are reflective of what might be expected in introductions and conclusions of first-year essays, where strategies include forming the thesis, referring to the source text, outlining the purpose of the essay (in introductions), and reframing the main arguments and summing up the conclusion (in conclusions); repetition of elements, such as pronouns or questions, is not present. The interpersonal interaction of reader and writer are less personal or direct. Ivanič and Camps (2001:26) assert that most academic discourse is written in a declarative form, as in the NS samples above. However, employing interrogatives

suggests a very different relationship between writer and reader, proposing a more personal, intimate dialogue.

Thus far, the semantic and lexico-grammatical features which appear distinctive in G1.5 texts have suggested that their over-representation of personal examples and grammatical elements associated with narratives and conversational English mark both their ideational positioning and interpersonal voice as more subjective and situated in local experience than either the ESL or NS student groups. Furthermore, the analysis of their use of questions, though not marked for frequency, does indicate that G1.5 students are struggling at the sentence level with the difficult task of getting themselves into and out of the essays by using questions. The dialogic nature of questions and, as will be seen below, in their distinctive use of conjunctions in written text suggests that G1.5 texts could be viewed not as academic discourse but as a different genre altogether. If we consider *genre* to represent legitimized ways of using language within a discipline, consisting of conventions for organizing and presenting messages for particular social purposes (Chang and Swales 1999, Clark and Ivanič 1997, Hyland 2004b, Swales 1980), then what has been presented regarding G1.5 writing is less representative of the academic essay genre than it is of a hybrid discourse of the academic and personal/interpersonal. However, as the texts being examined resulted from academic assignments and are written within the domain of the academy, they must be analyzed from the view of their success/failure within that context. Moreover, the lack of genre characteristics further marks these students as the most novice writers within the academy and serves as a reminder of the marginalization of these students and the failings of writing instruction.

5.4 Conjunctions

The corpus results indicating overuse of certain conjunctions by G1.5 students suggested that looking at sentence structures would prove informative regarding issues of

conveying messages about students' sense of authority in their writing. Several researchers (Davidson 1991, Hamp-Lyons 1991, Vaughn 1991) argue that types, frequencies, and accuracy of subordinate clause use are crucial for determining NNS writing proficiency. These clause types facilitate connection between ideas providing discourse cohesion and are identified as markers of structural complexity in a text (Hinkel 2002:128). In general, researchers (Biber et al 1999, Chafe 1986, Halliday & Hasan 1976, Swales 1990) note that use of subordinating and coordinating conjunctions is prevalent in academic texts, more common than in conversation, and allows for ellipsis and substitution of lexical and syntactic elements. Hinkel (2002:129) reports that in her corpus study comparing NS and NNS student texts, there was no marked difference in frequency of use of subordinating or coordinating conjunctions between the two groups, though NS showed a significantly higher rate of reduced adverb and adjective clauses. The results from my study indicate different results from Hinkel's and seem to show an exception to the academic uses mentioned above.

Thompson and Zhou (2003) argue that conjunctive items, such as *so, and, but*, not only demonstrate cohesion and ideational representation of knowledge, but they also depend on what the writer thinks about what s/he is writing and therefore also represent the interpersonal metafunction of language. Thompson and Zhou (2003:140-141) also state that conjunctions "…contribute to what Bakhtin calls the dialogic overtones of a text: they invoke both writer's presence and the writer's awareness of the reader." Conjunctions indicate the dominant role of the writer who guides the reader toward the idea on which the writer has decided. In this way, it can be argued that conjunctions are representative of both ideational and interpersonal positioning. The section below will discuss frequency of conjunctions among the three corpora, but will also qualitatively examine conjunction usage as representative of interpersonal positioning of the writer and as connectors not typical of essay genre of academic discourse.

5.4.1 Coordinating Conjunctions: The Case of But

In their study, Biber et al (1999:82) found that coordinators are most frequently used in academic prose, with the exception of *but*, which "…is the only coordinator which is more frequent in conversation than in all other registers..." *But* however features prominently in the G1.5 corpus (see Table 3.10 above); there is no significant overuse of *but* between NS and ESL students (though NS use was more frequent with a log likelihood of 4.63), nor between G1.5 and NS students (though G1.5 students used *but* more frequently than NS with a log likelihood of 2.03). Also interesting about G1.5 students' overuse of *but* relates to the following information from Biber et al: "The high frequency of *but* should be seen in conjunction with the high frequency of negatives in conversation" (1999:82). If we refer back to Table 3.7, we can see that an under-represented feature in the G1.5 corpus was the use of negatives. These would seem then like contradictory results. In examining the G1.5 corpus, the environment for *but* is often one of contrast, which is closely linked to negation, and one where the adverbial *however* could sometimes be substituted:

> 5oo. <… Favorite [student's spelling] foods are very important part of our life sine we cannot live without food. **But** when it come to me particularly I like almost all kinds of foods **but** not all of them are my favourite foods.> (gen0030de)
>
> 5pp. <…It is a quite a lot of work and is not cheap to make **but** the results are worth it.> (gen0031de)
>
> 5qq. <…there is so much work to do before we get to the end, to eat it. **But,** after we are done, we are so proud of ourselves…> (gen0032de)

Biber et al (1999:82, 883-884) note that, in academic prose, *however* is more frequent a coordinator to indicate a contrastive relationship, whereas *but* appears more in conversation. Chang and Swales (1999:148) noted that, in a study of writing handbooks, beginning a sentence with a conjunction or conjunctive adverb, like *but* or *however*, was associated with informal speech style and considered inappropriate for written academic discourse. In very

few instances did either NS or ESL students begin sentences with conjunctions in their final essay drafts; therefore it would appear that the G1.5 students are not fully aware of the effect of informal speech elements on academic discourse.

5.4.2 Subordinate Conjunctions: Because *and* That

The overuse of subordinate conjunctions in general by G1.5 users includes the following *because, when, if, since, so, while, where, after* and more. Especially interesting is the G1.5 use of *because*. While *because* is used in academic discourse to provide a cause or reason for a supposition, its appearance in conversational English is more frequent and can be used to express clausal relationships other than cause or reason (Biber et al 1999:842). In her study, Schleppegrell (1996) argues that *because* in spoken English functions differently than in written discourse; this oral usage is what appears in NNS writing. Given the frequency numbers in the corpora and an examination of context, it would appear that G1.5 usage of *because* is more in keeping with the usage in spoken language as found by Schleppegrell. Close inspection of data reveals that G1.5 students use this conjunction not just to show cause/reason, but also to illustrate the knowledge base for their assertions, introduce independent segments, and express point of view– uses more associated with spoken English and indicative of ideational and interpersonal metafunctions of language. Examples from the corpus illustrate:

Knowledge base assertion

5rr. <… Generation 1.5 students have not stayed in their native country long enough to acquire enough education to be considered literate in that language, **because** they might not know the structures of the essay, history of the country, and many other aspects that come with schooling in different countries.> (gen0194rp)

Introduction of independent segment

5ss. <…I find that my colleague tried to use English to persuade customers, but the costumer cannot understand him. It is **because** he was speaking the English with grammatical mistakes, and he cannot pronounce some words correctly. I wonder why he made such kind of mistakes. It is **because** all teenagers who are educated in Hong Kong must have learned English for 14 years…> (gen0195rp)

Expression of point of view

5tt. <…Lets say my mom keeps reading different stories every time at a fast pace, and as I grow I read books at a fast pace, **because** I think it is important to spread my domain of knowledge.> (gen0164rr)

In example 5rr above, the student is using the *because* clause to present the knowledge on which the assertion is based. In other words, the *because* clause provides the reason for drawing the conclusion the writer offers in the main clause that students might not be literate in their home language, rather than providing the cause or reason for their not staying in their home countries. In example 5ss, the student's first use of *because* is what we would expect in written discourse – it expresses the reason his friend was not being understood. However, in the second instance, the *because* clause, introduced by a nonreferential *it* construction, offers us more information about why the writer was perhaps surprised at his friend's language difficulty, but does not offer a cause for it. Finally, in example 5tt, the writer uses *because* followed by *I think*, to express an opinion, rather than to state an objective cause for something. Notice also that the *Lets say* in this section indicates a conversational tone directed at a particular reader/listener and suggesting a hypothetical situation rather than a concrete example. Schleppegrell (1996:277) argues that these types of uses are typical of speech patterns where speakers link utterances which are not logically causes and effects. Both in frequency and in these oral uses, *because* represents a marked feature in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the ESL corpora; comparison of G1.5 usage with NS corpus data showed that NS student writers rarely used *because* in essays to indicate anything other than cause or reason.

Another feature which appears overused by the G1.5 students is *that* as a conjunction (CST). Rather than produce reduced clauses, which is expected in academic writing and which were prevalent in NS texts, G1.5 students show a tendency to write with an elaborated form and complex sentence structures, where over-explicitness and repetition are prevalent.

The examples below indicate complex structures not found in typical academic discourse nor in conversational English :

> 5uu. <… He has a lot of statements **that** would help me explain **that** people use animals for their research because they feel **that** it's the right thing to do. I'm going to say **that** it's wrong…> (gen0007ab)
>
> 5vv. <…Those who are stuck on the fact **that** people of different races look different from their own race are ignorant…> (gen0076rp)
>
> 5ww. <…Research shows **that** interracial marriage is increasing and **that** it did make this country in to the country **that** it is today.> (gen0077rp)

As was seen in Section 5.3, where G1.5 students used interrogative mood and first person pronouns repeatedly, the repetition of particular features to explicitly direct the reader to particular conclusions seems to feature in G1.5 texts. In addition, in example 5uu, the student also includes his judgment of the situation/research by adding *I'm going to say that it's wrong.* Moreover, the student's use of contractions suggests an informal, spoken style of discourse. Example 5vv similarly uses *that* construction along with informal vocabulary (*stuck on, ignorant*) to include opinion as part of the student's research project. These examples reinforce the discoursal portrait of G1.5 students as struggling to find a voice in their texts which balances the formal features and messages they want to express with their skill level and experience in aural language learning. The G1.5 students are trying out various strategies at the sentence level without consideration or awareness of problematic register differences between conversational English and written academic discourse.

5.5 Summary

This chapter examined lexico-grammatical features such as pronouns, question formation, and conjunctions in light of interpersonal positioning of G1.5 student writers in their texts. While certain of the features could be argued to represent ideational positioning, the decision to discuss them in terms of interpersonal positioning was made in order to demonstrate the level of personal attributes, sense of self and surety, and imposition of

informal language patterns imposed on written works which appear in these texts. Claiming authority as a writer is easily seen through the over-representation of first person plural pronouns, as well as overt expressions of opinion by G1.5 students. Semantic and grammatical features which mark narrative formats and preferences of stance and subject choices also appear in conjunction with the personal and interactive voice of these student writers. Arguably, G1.5 students use personal pronouns, questions, and conjunctions to establish solidarity with readers, create dialogue, indicate authority, and guide readers. Where frequency numbers of features indicate commonalities among the three studied student groups, often the qualitative use of features mark significant differences, such as in the case of *it*. Though some frequency numbers might indicate contradictory analyses of results, such as the case of NS over-representation of *you*, the qualitative use of the pronoun and the novice status of all three student groups remind us that these students share more features than exhibit marked differences.

In the following chapter, a final examination of the corpus data will highlight marked ways G1.5 students use, or do not use, language to create and shape a text. The analysis of data will look at factors, such as the effect of essay prompts, rhetorical features, and syntactic elements, such as prepositions, to determine how the G1.5 students in this study position themselves with reference to textual voice. It will also be argued that some features already discussed have relevance to the textual positioning of these students and further analysis of how G1.5 students view text construction in light of academic discourse/essay genre will be considered.

CHAPTER 6:
TEXTUAL POSITIONING

"… Generation 1.5 students have not stayed in their native country long enough to acquire enough education to be considered literate in that language, because they might not know the structures of the essay, history of the country, and many other aspects that come with schooling in different countries." (gen0194rp)

6.1 Introduction and Rationale

Thus far, the ways in which G1.5 student writers position themselves as having particular perspectives on reality and as expressing particular relationships with readers have been presented. In this chapter, the ways in which they position themselves in relation to academic writing will be considered. Textual representation of G1.5 students' identity will be discussed by examining both content and style in their essays. Since they are new members of the academic community and the form of expression by which they will primarily be evaluated is their written discourse, the way the students choose to shape their texts is relevant to their acceptance (or not) into the community by those who evaluate their texts.

The study discussed in Chapter 2 suggests that evaluation is problematic from the perspective of both students and instructors. Lexico-grammatical elements already discussed also indicate that student voices are not always representative of what is expected in the academy. Long sentences linked or introduced by conjunctions (as discussed in Chapter 5.4) or repetitive patterns of pronoun use or questions (as discussed in Chapter 5.3) tend to be representative of the way thoughts flow from one to another in speech rather than the "highly constructed processes of composing which are characteristic of writing" (Ivanič & Camps 2001:28). Present tense verbs expressing generalizations and simple past tense verbs which narrate events (Chapter 4.3.1) as well as students' semantic choices (Chapter 4.2) have been

discussed here in their portrayal of ideational and interpersonal metafunctions; however, these features can also be evaluated in terms of the textual voice they represent, which is not one typically associated with academic discourse, as suggested in Chapter 5.3. Inclusive pronoun use (Chapter 5.2), questions directed at the reader (Chapter 5.3), and clear exemplification markers (Chapter 4.3.3) are generally considered elements of less formal writing and a more narrative style. In addition, they could also be interpreted as a kind of textual positioning where the writer is aware and considerate of the reader, guiding the reader through his/her thought process by giving the reader explicit signals on how to think about what has been written. In addition to those linking devices already discussed, this chapter will also review G1.5 use of prepositions in light of their over-representation in the G1.5 texts and in terms of their function in discourse. Student responses to different essay prompts and the assignments' intended rhetorical purpose will also be discussed herein.

6.2 Prepositions and Other Linking Devices

Used to make important connections in discourse, prepositions are markedly overused in the G1.5 corpus. *WMatrix2* tags single and multi-word prepositions in its frequency count of this category and excludes those prepositions that it tags as parts of other multi-word units, such as phrasal verbs or some idiomatic expressions. Therefore what are left in the count are those words which are part of the English prepositional system well known for its complexity. Biber et al (1999:91-92) comment that high preposition use is associated with academic prose, but this is presumably because of the use of prepositions in complex noun phrases (e.g. *the complexity <u>of</u> the writing <u>in</u> the native speaker corpus*). One possibility, then, is that the G1.5 students are using more of such phrases than the other students. If so, this would be a counter-example to the general observation that their writing is more *speech-like* and less *academic* than that of the other students. The alternative explanation, however, is that the G1.5 students are using prepositions in their other major role, i.e. introducing

prepositional phrases of place and time, a function mainly associated with narrative and with life-story in particular. I will argue that it is primarily this function that accounts for the high frequency of prepositions in this G1.5 corpus.

Table 6.1 illustrates that, of the top 20 most frequent prepositions, 10 indicate location (*in, by, on, at, between, around, among, within, behind, over*), while four are directional and closely related to location (*to, from, into, through*). In addition, two refer to temporal situations (*after, during*), though *after* can also refer to location. Locative and temporal adverbs were also marked features in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the ESL students; the semantic similarity is important and must be considered more than a coincidence.

Preposition	**# of occurrences**	**Relative frequency**
Of	2953	2.88
In	1831	1.79
To	859	0.84
About	555	0.54
By	474	0.46
On	401	0.39
From	368	0.36
Like	187	0.18
As	182	0.18
At	149	0.15
Into	114	0.11
Through	114	0.11
Between	106	0.10
After	47	0.05
Around	44	0.04
During	35	0.03
Among	34	0.03
Within	32	0.03
Behind	30	0.03
In that	29	0.03
over	27	0.03

Table 6.1: *Of* and 20 most frequent adverbs in G1.5 corpus (as compared to the NS corpus)

Connell notes that "prepositions have always been a trap for the unwary, and something of a nightmare for the foreign learner" (1991:42). Thorough examination of the overuse of the various free and bound prepositions is outside the scope of this study given the

complexity of the prepositional system. However, a brief study of the use of *in* in the G1.5 corpus suggests that there is much more to look at.

Use of *in*	% of occ. (1831 total)	Examples
Location/space	76%	< **In** my essay…>, <… Dinka people are located *on* the bank of the River Nile **in** the Southern Sudan>, <…**in** the groceries store…>, <… people **in** the community…>, <… **in** my country Kosova>, < **In** the Bible…> *[36]< We were coming home **in** a bus…>, *<…pieces looked gorgeous **in** every plate>, *<…websites **in** the internet>
Time	2%	< ..to make baklava **in** an hour or two>, < **In** the 18th century…>, <… **in** the past…> *<…that store opened **in** 10 am and closed at 8:00 p.m>
Manner – in adjectival/adverbial phrases	3%	< …dressed **in** red …>, <…woman **in** the advertisement is **in** sexy clothes that makes her show off her body **in** a sexual way>, <… product is **in** gray and black…>
Manner – in complex noun phrases	3%	<…the advertisement **in** color…>, <…80 kopek **in** change…>, <…expansiveness **in** women's bodies and appetites>, <… congestion **in** the sleeping areas…>, <… traditional family structure **in** the modern world…>
Chunked phrases	16%	< **In** addition…>, <…**in** my whole life>, <**In** this case…>, <I leave it all **in** her hands…>, <**In** a way…>, < …back **in** the day…>, < From being **in** the shadows…> *< And **in** the result children left …>, *< …**in** the center of attention>

Table 6.2: Occurrences of *in* in G1.5 corpus

All instances on *in* appearing in the G1.5 corpus were examined and categorized, the results of which can be seen in Table 6.2. Each instance was categorized by semantic usage, except in the case of *chunked*, or idiomatic phrases, which represent phrasal units and were therefore all grouped together. As the table indicates, a small number of uses are labeled as indicating manner, and are further subdivided here into grammatical uses (in adjective, adverbial or complex noun phrases) simply as a method to analyze more closely the environments in which *in* appears, and which are discussed in more detail below. All instances of *in* were assigned to one category only in order to eliminate inaccuracies in

[36] * indicates an incorrect usage of the preposition

frequency counts. In addition, incorrect uses of *in* are left in the count since I was interested in examining language use among these students rather than only considering correct or standard forms; these uses are also discussed in detail below.

Quirk et al (1985:676) distinguishes the uses of *in*, *at*, and *on* in relation to the dimensional aspect of the object, stating that *in* is used with three-dimensional entities, *on* with two-dimensional entities, and *at* for dimensionless entities. By a large margin (76%), G1.5 students used the preposition *in* to refer to refer to the location of an object in reference to another object, or the location of information (e.g. *in the article*), particularly in providing detail of personal evidence and experience. Perhaps surprisingly, only 2% of the uses of *in* were in reference to temporal matters, suggesting that the students either preferred other prepositions to indicate time or other grammatical forms, such as past tense verbs. Other uses of the preposition were far less frequent in the G1.5 corpus. Only the use of chunked phrases appears relatively frequently, oftentimes with difficulty as will be discussed below. The use of *in* regarding location overwhelmingly supports previous evidence of the students' narration of personal events and reference to themselves and other human sources as evidence.

There is support in the G1.5 corpus that these students conflate some other structures into an overuse of *in*, including substitution of *in* for some phrases where *on, at* or *as* would be appropriate, which might add to the frequency with which prepositions appear in their data. Examples include:

6a. <…**In** the contrary, most people that came here are Protestant, Jewish, Catholics…> (gen0079rp)

6b. <…**In** other hand I believe that art is so important **to** furan [student's spelling] people…> (gen0096rr)

6c. <…**Despite** all the evolution improvements **in** modern society, freedom, equality **of** rights **of** woman and man, older is not **in** the center **of** attention any more comparing **with** the traditional families…> (gen0056rr)

6d. <…because her housekeeping instinct talks **to** her **in** that moment…> (gen0056rr)

6e. <…**For** example while they don't speak the language where they **in** they can draw their feelings…> (gen0096rr)

6f. <…The author **of** this article, Jane Martin, gives a full analysis **of** women **in** immigration…> (gen0065ab)

In 6a and 6b, the idiomatic phrases *on the contrary* and *on the other hand* have been modified by the student writers by substituting *in*. Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999:530-532) refer to these expressions as "Conjunctive Adverbials", chunked phrases used to introduce information which is contrary to what is expected and a linking tool leading readers to new evidence; however, misuse of these expressions by the student writers interrupt the effectiveness of their signposting. Examples 6c and 6d illustrate contexts where standard American English would use *at (at the center of attention* and *at that moment*, respectively). Example 6c also demonstrates a difficulty with *comparing with* versus the expected *compared to*; this seems to suggest that this student is conflating several possible grammatical structures. For example, the student could intend to create a reduced clause, *compared to traditional families*, but has used a different verb form more appropriate to a structure requiring a progressive verb form to detail what will be discussed: such as *to be comparing X with Y.* Finally, examples 6e and 6f illustrate grammatical issues with placement and usage of the preposition. In 6e, the preposition, part of the prepositional verb *draw in*, would more appropriately be placed after *where* to indicate the location/direction. The phrase in 6f, *women in immigration*, rather than the simpler *immigrant women*, could represent the student's lack of ability in transforming nouns into adjectives or alternatively could represent the student's substituting a complex noun phrase (e.g. *women in politics, women in education*) onto a context which does not work as well.

Amid misuses of prepositions or chunked phrases which include prepositions, the above examples also demonstrate an attempt at a sophisticated and formal connection of

ideas. Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999:535) argue that the use of logical connectors of this type, and especially conjunctive adverbials, are not explicitly taught, chiefly occur in highly formal registers, and are difficult for NNS students to master. While 6c is problematic with some uses of prepositions, the sentence begins with a fronted adverbial phrase, ***Despite*** *all the evolution improvements* ***in*** *modern society,* which uses the prepositions correctly and uses an *academic-sounding* voice to set up the contrastive meaning the author intends to relate in a complex sentence pattern. This example, as well as 6a and 6b, where the fronted phrases are not correctly stated, suggest a sentence pattern type often used by these students to link ideas and represent the logical flow of ideas from one to another. Just at the exemplification phrase, ***for*** *example*, is used in 6e and in other examples seen in Chapter 4.3.3, these prepositional phrases act as markers for these students to position themselves in relation to their communication of ideas.

In conclusion then, a brief examination of *in* suggests that its over-representation in the G1.5 corpus can most likely be accounted for by its use (in 76% of occurrences) to indicate place in reference to student narration of evidence and experience. Moreover, a brief look at prepositions and other logical connectors indicates the grammatical difficulty they present, even to those students with many years of exposure to English, but that the G1.5 students do attempt to create texts where there is an awareness of connecting ideas and opinions for the reader to follow.

6.3 Effect of Essay Prompts

While the above data provides a discussion of marked features and their relevance to textual positioning, it is also necessary to look at rhetorical elements in the students' writing as they pertain to the various genres of writing falling under the umbrella of *academic prose* which students will be expected to produce in the academy. Since the different writing tasks were meant to provide students an opportunity to practice writing for different purposes (e.g.

forming an argument, presenting research, responding to a text), texts were expected to demonstrate elements of the various genres the students were studying. The abundant use of personal pronouns, personal examples, and narrative features in the G1.5 data overall gives rise to questions regarding the students' ability to adjust their writing based on the goal of the writing prompt to which they were responding. Features already discussed in Chapters 4 & 5 also suggest a tendency for G1.5 students to interpret essay tasks as demanding a personal response rather than one that is closely aligned with objective and research-based discussions expected in the academy. Therefore in order to get a more complete look at the ability of these students and how they construct texts, it is necessary to look at the data in light of the various writing prompts in order to explore the kind of writing that different essay prompts produced.

# of occurrences in NS corpus	**Rel. Freq.**	**# of occurrences in G1.5 corpus**	**Rel. Freq.**	**LL – NS vs. G1.5**	**# of occurrences in ESL corpus**	**Rel. Freq.**	**LL – NS vs. ESL**
2672	0.94	741	0.72	43.68	646	0.72	40.54

Table 6.3: Occurrences and saliency of *I* in three corpora

Though pronoun use was marked for frequency in the G1.5 corpus (as discussed in Chapters 3 and 5), the first person singular subject pronoun, *I*, appeared more frequently in the NS corpus. However, earlier results from the pilot study, as reported in Module II, suggested that G1.5students used *I* significantly more frequently than the other student groups. Though this current finding does support existing literature (Hinkel 1997, 2002; Hyland 2002a; Tang & John 1999)[37], it raised concerns about the validity of my earlier research results. Therefore a review of data was necessary. In reexamining both the pilot study corpus and the full corpus, I concluded that the prompts, as well as the inclusion of draft copies of essays in the corpora, played a major part in the pilot results. Of the prompts

[37] Please refer to Module II for a detailed literature review regarding this issue.

used, those included in the pilot study indicate a writing topic which either asked the student to write from personal experience or suggested a topic (like immigration, changing families and roles) of which G1.5 students had personal experience. They therefore used more personal examples in their essays, even though the majority of prompts asked students to focus on the readings in their essays in order to supply supporting information. The writing prompts for all essays appear in Appendix D; those prompts which were part of the pilot study are indicated. Essays in response to all prompts, including those used in the pilot study, were included in collating the final corpus data.

As reported in Chapters 3 & 5, use of the first person plural pronouns, *we/us,* was still more frequent in the G1.5 corpus and, in the NS and ESL corpora, was much more heavily weighted towards the 'representative' use of the pronouns (see Table 5.2). In the NS corpus, only about 11% of the occurrences of *we/us* represented personal narratives, or sources of supporting information; in the ESL corpus, the frequency rate in this category was about 5%. These percentages were lower than those in the pilot study, and indicate fewer personal narrative uses of these pronouns across prompts than in the G1.5 corpus, where 72% of occurrences of *we/us* involved narration of lived experience. This evidence, as well as other indications presented herein, suggests that G1.5 students do not necessarily always produce narrative texts, but where the writing prompt allowed for interpretation in that way, they tend to include personal experience in their essays, or relate their personal experience to the academic task in a way that was *unacademic*. Therefore it seemed prudent to examine the effect of essay prompts on the frequency rates of resulting salient features in the corpus and then to examine the results for qualitative differences. In this section, I will first report on existing literature which deals with the effect of writing prompt on student output. In Section 6.3.2, I will detail the methods I used to search results and will report those results in Section 6.3.3-6.3.5.

6.3.1 Research on the Effects of Essay Prompts on Student Output

Little research could be found on the effect of essay prompts on NS or NNS students' writing though, as was seen in student reaction to assessment in Chapter 2, determining what was expected from the assignment was a concern and consideration for students when evaluating their work. Hinkel (2002) considers the effect of writing prompt and revisits her data by breaking down frequency of features for each of two groups of writing prompts, with each group consisting of three prompts. While all her essay prompts asked for student opinion, the prompts which asked students to write about selection of one's academic major, freedom of children to express opinions different from their parents, and the manner in which classes are taught yielded significantly different feature types than the prompts which asked for opinion about the wealth of movie stars and athletes or whether parents should make life easier for their children. She concluded that there were substantial differences in the frequency of text features for both NS and NSS in all text types, but that those prompts which related more to student's personal experiences attracted more NNS writers and included more features associated with personal reference than did those of NS students. She also notes that the wording of the prompts had a significant effect and direct influence on the NS and NNS essay texts, as much of the wording of the prompts was found verbatim in the essays. Hinkel concludes that, in the case of NNS students, this is due to limited lexicon and a lack of knowledge of syntactic structures (2002:163), though this does not explain why the same wording features would appear in NS texts in similar distribution.

Reporting similar results, Haywood (1990) argues that for NNS, longer prompts give NNS students more information and more confidence in how to respond to the prompt. These students also looked to longer prompts for clues to the instructors' desired organization, and he suggests that NNS students are more successful in producing essays with appropriate rhetorical structure when prompts are detailed. He also concludes that when

NNS find the prompt relevant to personal interests, they produce longer, more detailed essays. Unlike Hinkel, Haywood does not suggest language limitation as a reason why students might not be evaluated as successful in responding to a given prompt. Considering the concerns of students regarding evaluation (see Chapter 2) as well as expected differences in text features due to essay type, further study of this data was warranted.

6.3.2 Methodology

Because of the above discussed discrepancy with first person pronoun frequency numbers and in order to determine how G1.5 students self-represent in their textual positioning, I thought it necessary to examine the corpora not only as a whole (as is represented in the data reviewed in Chapters 3-5), but also by prompt to see if the prompts had an effect on the data results. This decision was made retrospectively and therefore had no influence on the creation of the prompts themselves, which were written and designed for practice of rhetorical modes of argument, exposition, persuasion, and information.

While many researchers (Biber 1988; Ewert 2006; Hinkel 2002; Hunston & Thompson 2003; Hyland 1998, 1999, 2004, 2005a; Smith 2003) have discussed categories of discourse modes and related lexico-grammatical conventions in detail, I took a simplified approach here in order to review general trends and tendencies across the corpora. Based on the desired rhetorical outcomes, I divided the prompts into three categories:

1. *Response*: These essay prompts included the descriptive and reader-response essay prompts. I put these essays into one category because they asked students to write from personal experience or to write a personal response to a reading. Because these prompts were more focused on personal experience or reaction, I expected different grammatical and lexical choices in the texts. In these types of essays, we would expect to find a focus on specific objects, events, and people. Personal pronouns, past tense verbs, temporal expressions, and causative subordination would be some of the expected lexico-grammatical features.

2. *Argument*: This category includes the compare/contrast, critical analysis, and essay exam prompts. I included these prompts in one category because they all asked the students to analyze and critique one or more texts, omitting personal opinion, and often asking them to use the language of an author to discuss the topic. Author

references, modals of prediction and necessity, conditional subordination, and infinitives would represent expected features.

3. *Research*: This final category includes students' annotated bibliographies and research reports. I include these into one category because they not only asked students to provide information based on researched data but also to include an evaluative component of their resources and subject matter. In these essays, we would expect to find author references, reporting verbs, passive constructions, phrasal coordination, some adverbial subordinators.

I compared the following combinations of corpus data based on POS tagging:

- G1.5 Response essays to G1.5 all
- G1.5 Argument essays to G1.5 all
- G1.5 Research essays to G1.5 all
- G1.5 Response essays to NS Response Essays & NS Response to G1.5 Response
- G1.5 Response essays to ESL Response Essays & ESL Response to G1.5 Response
- G1.5 Argument Essays to NS Argument Essays & NS Argument to G1.5 Argument
- G1.5 Argument to ESL Argument & ESL Argument to G1.5 Argument
- G1.5 Research to NS Research & NS Research to G1.5 Research
- G1.5 Research to ESL Research & ESL Research to G1.5 Research

Because these data represent essays written to practice expression of particular rhetorical goals, I wanted to examine the POS tagged results both quantitatively and qualitatively since the same grammatical category can often serve different functions in a text. This proved to be the case in the study reported in Chapter 5.4, for example, where the G1.5 writers used the conjunction *because* to express more than a causal relationship. Similarly, examining the data usage of *we/us* across the three corpora in Chapter 5.2 illustrated the variable distribution of meaning/use of the same pronouns among different users. As I also had an intuition that G1.5 student essays showed less stylistic change across text-types, this method of analysis would help me confirm or deny this supposition.

6.3.3 Response Prompts

None of the features which were overused by the G1.5 students in comparison to the ESL or NS pooled data appeared salient when comparing only the G1.5 Response essays to

all other Response essays or to the pooled data. This was not a surprising result as the Response essays were those which allowed for the most personal information from students; therefore one would expect the personal and possessive pronouns to appear frequently in all three corpora. However, when we compare the G1.5 Response data to the ESL Response data and NS Response data separately, differences among the student groups emerge which confirm expectations. These features, personal and possessive pronouns, various verb forms, temporal adverbs, and subordinate conjunction use, prepositions, have been discussed in previous chapters and are generally considered features of conversational lexico-grammatical or narrative forms. As the previous analysis revealed, students often used personal examples

Features which appear salient in complete corpora comparison (see Table 3.8) as well as in comparison of G1.5 Response Essays to NS & ESL	**Features which appear salient in Response essays when comparing G1.5 to NS & ESL corpora, but did not appear as salient in all essays**	**Features which appear salient when comparing G1.5 Response essays to ESL Response essays only**	**Features which appear salient when comparing G1.5 Response essays to NS Response essays only**
		PPHS1- *s/he*[38] PPY – *you* CS – sub. conj. RT – temporal adv. VBDR – *were* VD0 – *do*, base form RG – degree adv. DB – *all, half*	PPIS2-*we* PPIO2 – *us* PPH1-*it* APPGE- possessive pro VVD-past tense of lexical verb VBDZ - *was* AT- def. article (*the*) REX21 - Exemplification NN1-sg common noun MC – cardinal #

Table 6.4: Salient features in RESPONSE essays

[38] Text in **red** indicates features which appeared in Table 3.8 as features which were salient in the G1.5 corpus as compared to both the ESL and NS corpora. The text in **blue** indicates those features which appeared in Table 3.10 as salient in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the ESL corpus only. Finally, the text in **green** indicates those features which appear in Table 3.11 as salient in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the NS corpus only. **Black** text indicates features which have not appeared previously.

to illustrate their points; therefore the frequency of these features compared to the other corpora make sense.

Examination of the additional salient features reveals that over-represented features in the G1.5 corpus as compared to the ESL corpus include an additional form of the past tense of *be* and the base form of *do*, as well as degree adverbs, such as *very* and *so;* these are used in the corpus as amplifiers, as in the examples below:

> 6g. <…Cutting the baklava could be **very** tricky because it is a difficult way to cut it…we get tired making the baklava because there is **so much** work to do…But, after we are done, we are **so** proud of ourselves…> (gen0032de)

> 6h. <…The crust is not **too** crunchy and not **too** soft, not **too** wet and not **to** [sp]dry, but just perfect…> (gen0035de)

Two features which appear overused in the G1.5 Response corpus as compared to the NS Response corpus are singular common nouns (NN1) and cardinal numbers (MC). These features would suggest informational data and explicit nominal references more in line with expected features in academic prose and perhaps somewhat surprising as over-represented by G1.5 students. However, when we look at the NN1 list and the MC list we get references to family, food, measurements for baking, and more which refer to the personal narrative texts. Here the students appear to be giving details and data, helping the reader follow their narratives. A representative example is given in this description of a student's favorite food, mom's apple pie:

> 6i. <… First of all, you need about **3 apples** and maybe **1 lemon**…It only takes about **10 minutes** to prepare and **30 minutes** to bake…make **three or four cuts** with a **knife** on top of the **pie;** somewhere in the **center** of the **pie** so it would cook properly. And finally, you put it in the **oven** at **350 degree**…> (gen0035de)

6.3.4 Argument Prompts

Though essays written for this category of prompts were intended to be persuasive and employ textual reference and not personal examples, the over-representation of narrative

and conversation-like features dominate the overuse patterns by G1.5 students. They do, however, employ more singular common nouns (NN1), proper nouns (NP1, NP2), titles (NNB), temporal nouns (NNT1), prepositions (II, IO), and cardinal numbers (MC, MC2) than the other student groups. These features indicate that the use of proper nouns and numbers are used to reference authors and cite sources. These features reflect high informational qualities in these texts as well as explicit references. As argument essays were intended to include references to at least two texts, these features suggest that the G1.5 students, more than the other two student groups, made efforts to create more formal, academic writing; they were aware that using these linguistic tools was desirable in this context and thereby were attempting to position themselves as part of the academic community. This would appear an inconsistent finding, contrary to most of the evidence suggesting G1.5 students do not

Features which appear salient in complete corpora comparison (see Table 3.8) as well as in comparison of G1.5 Argument Essays to NS & ESL	**Features which appear salient in Argument essays when comparing G1.5 to NS & ESL corpora, but did not appear as salient in all essays**	**Features which appear salient when comparing G1.5 Argument essays to ESLArgument essays only**	**Features which appear salient when comparing G1.5 Argument essays to NS Argument essays only**
NNU - Units of measurement APPGE – Possessive Pronouns PPIO2 – *us*	DAR – comparative adv, after determiner (more, less)	PPIS2 – *we* RT – temporal adv. NNT1- temporal N (day, week) VV0- base form of lex.v VVI – infinitive	PPHS1-*s/he* VVD-past tense of lexical verb VVZ—*s* form of lex.v. AT – *the* II- preposition IO- *of* NN1- common N NP1, NP2 – proper N NNB – title (Mr., Prof.) MC, MC2 – cardinal #

Table 6.5: Salient features in ARGUMENT essays

employ elements of formal academic writing. I would suggest two possible reasons for this result:

1. As their instructor, I know I have a tendency to stress the importance of referencing sources of information and spend several class periods on teaching methods of incorporating sources into texts and citing sources properly. Therefore the references to texts could reflect a result of a focus in my teaching; however if this were the case, then the ESL students would be expected to show a similar frequency of these features.

2. A second possibility could be that G1.5 students are making efforts to use the elements of academic writing that are most salient to them, those features which they feel they can most comfortably manipulate.

Interestingly, however, the use of proper names/titles marked an essay as a sample of NNS prose in my interviews on assessment (see Chapter 2), and as illustrated here:

6j. <… Everyone and everything hhas [sp] its own truth. This truth that **Ms.** Allison talks about relates to **Ms.** Winterson's reality. …> (gen153cc)

This suggests that student attempts at a more formal writing style are sometimes less than successful, suggesting that they need further instruction in this area.

One feature appears over-represented in the G1.5 Argument corpus as compared to the ESL Argument corpus – infinitives (VVI). Biber (1988:111) argues that infinitives as persuasive features are used as adjective and verb complements, where the head adjective or verb frequently encodes the writer's stance or attitude toward the proposition encoded in the main clause (e.g. *hoped to see, happy to do*). However, in examining the text documents, I found only a few examples of infinitives serving this function:

6k. <…it is hard **to understand** the female rational, and it is even harder **to understand** their reasoning…> (gen0193ca)

6l. <… It is important they should attempt **to express** different things in order **to have** more information, and should attempt **to think** about what other people know about art…> (gen0154ca)

6m. <…that the tourist now follows a standard procedure of what they expect **to see** when they arrive **to see** the exhibit…> (gen158ca)

6n. <… It is a tool for business, it is used **to express** ideas…> (gen0183cc)

In examples 6k and 6l, the writers are using the infinitive phrases to further their argument of the importance of the propositions being made. In addition, these examples illustrate that where this function of the infinitive phrase appears, it does so repetitively; that is, just as these students repeated questions, pronouns, and conjunctions (see Chapters 5.3 & 5.4), so too do they repeat a structure here as a way to convince and/or engage their reader(s). Contrary to what was expected, there were few such uses of infinitives in these types of context; the majority of infinitives appeared in examples such as 6m and 6n, where the student is reporting information from a reading text to the reader. Therefore, though this feature appears overused in the G1.5 corpus, the contexts in which these features appear do not match their expected function for argument essays.

6.3.5 Research Prompts

Many of the features appearing as overused in the Research category, such as

Features which appear salient in complete corpora comparison (see Table 3.8) as well as in comparison of G1.5 Research Essays to NS & ESL	**Features which appear salient in Research essays when comparing G1.5 to NS & ESL corpora, but did not appear as salient in all essays**	**Features which appear salient when comparing G1.5 Research essays to ESL Research essays only**	**Features which appear salient when comparing G1.5 Research essays to NS Research essays only**
NNU – Units of measurement	RL- locative adv. CS- subordinating conjunctions CST – *that*, as conj. JJT-superlative adj (*best, oldest*) MCMC- hyphenated numbers(*101-113*) NN2 – pl. common nouns VDD – *did* VVGK-*going in, going to* PPX221- reflexive pronouns	VDI- *do*, infinitive VBR- *are* JJR – comparative adj. (*better, older*)	PPHS2 – *they* NP1-sg. Common noun MC-cardinal # NNL1-sg. Locative n (street) NNA-title, following noun(M.D.)

Table 6.6: Salient features in RESEARCH essays

subordinate conjunctions, are features suggesting spoken formats appearing in academic writing. Over-representation of the comparative (JJR) and superlative (JJT) adjectives can be considered amplifiers, suggesting stance and involvement of the interlocutor with the topic. Some examples include:

> 6o. < however, Starry Night by van Gogh is the **best** piece of art that I have never seen.> (gen168ab)
>
> 6p. <...everyone thinks that humans are the highest animals, but this is to far from the truth.> (gen0010rp)

Though the students in Examples 6o and 6p are writing annotated bibliographies and research reports, respectively, both have inserted superlatives as part of an opinion, as in 6o, or to refute an opinion, as in 6p. As these are not the expected, objective features of academic report writing we expect, the over-representation of these features suggests that, while G1.5 students might understand the importance of referencing sources in academic texts, they have not yet mastered certain expected conventions of distancing themselves from the reader in their texts; they are still viewing their personal relationship to the topic as relevant and important to reveal in the text.

Some of the features (e.g. proper nouns, cardinal numbers, and titles) primarily occur as elements from bibliographies, in-text citations, and discussions of a particular text or author; their presence is appropriate for research essays. Just as the G1.5 students were able to incorporate author references in the argument essays, these novice writers seem able to incorporate some features compatible with formal academic prose of a certain type, but are not completely consistent or successful.

Conspicuously absent in the G1.5 data are the features marking an impersonal, formal academic style, such as passives and other adverbials subordinators which one typically associates with discourse which is usually abstract, technical in content, and formal in style. Passive constructions and impersonal forms were the rarest in the G1.5 data, but were also

infrequent in NS texts. In one essay prompt only, did NS and ESL students use a high number of passive constructions, as well as the pronoun form, *one*. This was in response to an essay prompt asking for students to evaluate an essay written by Lord Chesterfield to his nephew in the eighteenth century. The text itself is very stylized, with passive constructions and very formal features, including use of *one* as a pro-form. In their reader-response essays, NS and ESL students seemed to incorporate these features into their writing, using the reading text as a model. The G1.5 students, however, did not take similar cues from the reading and therefore did not produce many of these forms.

6.4 Summary and Conclusions

6.4.1 Summary of Textual Positioning

The above analysis suggests that G1.5 students do make conscious choices about their textual representations both in content and style. They appear to use features such as prepositions and adverbials to link ideas and create a flow for the reader, though not always successfully. They also appear to be more consistent in writing style across various text-types; that is, they make fewer stylistic changes based on the writing prompt or assignment focus than perhaps NS or ESL students. G1.5 students seem to position themselves with certain authoritativeness in their over-representation of authors' names and references. In addition, the following conclusions are suggested by the analysis of G1.5 textual positioning:

A. Features of spoken English or of less formal varieties of English appear consistently overused in the G1.5 corpus.

B. Where elements of formal academic writing appear, as in author referencing, they sometimes are not used accurately and mark the students as NNS.

C. Except for Research prompt, there was little-to-no exact match in salient features between prompt data figures and data figures collected from all essays combined.

D. Overall, Research essays showed the most differences from the overall comparison and Response category showed fewest salient differences.

E. Features common to either the data above (G1.5 vs. NS or G1.5 vs. ESL) often appear in similar proportion.

6.4.2 Conclusions Regarding Corpus Data Analysis

Chapters 3-6 have detailed the results of a corpus study comparing results of three student corpora in order to look for patterns in trends, particularly in the writing of G1.5 students. Analysis has shown that these students self-represent in their texts in a variety of ways: through their choice of semantic topics, their narrative writing style, and features not

Type of voice/positioning	Refers to:	G1.5 linguistic Realizations
Ideational Positioning	Different interests, objects of study; Different views of knowledge-making	• Lexis – semantic choices • Reference to human agency – Proper names, pronouns • Verb type (lexical) • Verb tense (past) • Narrative features –Verb tense, Locative & temporal adverbs, personal references • Specific references - Exemplification, determiners
Interpersonal Positioning	Different degrees of self-assurance, certainty; Different relationships between writer and reader	• Personal pronoun references, esp. 1st person • Evaluation • Questions • Conjunctions • (Lack of) reduced clauses • Non-academic discourse features – narrative elements, conversational elements, informal elements
Textual Positioning	Different views of how a text should be constructed	• Linking devices – conjunctions, exemplifications • Prepositional phrases • (Lack of) Rhetorical features • (In) Formality of lexis

Table 6.7: Simultaneous types of voice positioning and G1.5 linguistic realizations (adapted from Halliday 2004, Ivanič & Camps 2001)

typically associated with academic English. They position themselves in their texts via ideational, interpersonal, and textual methods which give them a distinct voice in their writing, somewhat different from their ESL and NS counterparts. An outline of the findings from the corpus data can be found in Table 6.7[39].

Examining data using multiple methods has suggested trends and patterns in G1.5 student writing. Self-representation, however, by its nature is personal and individual, and, in most of the literature, is analyzed via individual case studies. For this reason and because G1.5 students represent a wide array of L1s, length of exposure to English, and formal academic training, it is necessary to look at individual essays to determine how these features manifest in particular writings. Therefore, I will examine individual essays in Chapter 7 in order to test the results of the analysis of the previous chapters against students of varying backgrounds and experiences of academic English. I want to take the generalizations found in the corpus data and see how they apply in individual writing tasks, comparing G1.5 student with similar L1s, length of time in the U.S. and more in order to get a clearer picture of the linguistic behaviors of these students and to see what variables play a part in their production.

[39] This is the same table which appears in Chapter 1 but is reprinted here for the convenience of the readers.

CHAPTER 7:
CASE STUDIES -
SELF-REPRESENTATION IN THREE ESSAYS

"Then I ask myself am I like him? Do I want to be like him? What is it about him that keeps my attention?" (gen178rp)

7.1 Introduction and Rationale

I have tried to demonstrate in the three previous chapters that linguistic features over-represented in the academic essays of G1.5 students can best be thought about in terms of *voice* in the Bakhtinian sense, locating their users culturally and historically, not optional but present in the lexical, syntactic, and organizational features of the texts. Using Ivanič's & Camps' (2001) adaptation of Halliday's (2004) three macrofunctions of language as a framework, salient features of G1.5 student writers, which were gleaned from a corpus study of three student corpora were mapped onto these voice positionings in terms of the way the student writers represent the world (ideational positioning), their sense of authority and the relationship of the writers with the readers (interpersonal positioning), and the ways they turn meaning into text (textual positioning).

While the corpus data provided a set of generalizations to be examined, it can not account for the many variables to consider in analyzing G1.5 writing or the continuum on which students move from novice to more experienced writers. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the G1.5 student participants represented 11 different L1s; contrastive analysis (CA) studies would argue that each of those languages would interfere in particular ways with the English acquisition of its speaker. I also mentioned in that same chapter that I defined G1.5 students as having resided in the U.S. for a minimum of four years and having at least two years in U.S. schools, or as having resided in the U.S. for a minimum of ten years with no formal pre-university schooling. These numbers were based on SLA research and the limited amount of

G1.5 acquisition studies available (Harklau 2003; Harklau, Losey & Siegel 1999; Matsuda et al 2003; Valdes 1992). Length of time in the U.S., amount of time in school, and other factors are not consistent across studies however (Crosby 2008, Larsen 2008, Roberge 2001, Schwartz 2006, van Dommelen 2008). Many other variables can also influence second, or other, language acquisition; this therefore problematizes study design, validity of results, and more. In order to look more closely at these features and how they manifest in individual students, as well as to test this framework, this chapter will look more closely at the research reports of three Spanish-speaking G1.5 students in order to show how they negotiate representations of themselves in their first year university writing. I will propose herein that this negotiation of self-representation is integral to any writing at any level and is a relevant consideration for learners and instructors in both composition and subject area courses.

Since self-representation is individual in nature, the majority of research in this area has dealt with case studies of small numbers of writers (see Chapter 3.1). This chapter, then, will look at three case study essays in order to test the corpus data results against an analysis of individual features of voice positioning. The chapter will begin with a description of the participants and writing assignments. Section 7.3 will then examine the essays in light of ideational positioning and the corpus features realized for G1.5 students. Section 7.4 will do the same for interpersonal positioning and Section 7.5 will focus on textual positioning in the texts. Finally, Section 7.6 will collate the chapter's research and offer conclusions.

7.2 Case Study Design

7.2.1 Participants

In order to minimize the effects of as many variables as possible, I chose to examine the essays of three students of the same gender, L1, and course of study. Variables I could not control included length of time in the U.S., educational background, and socio-economic

status. However, analysis of the individual writing assignments may suggest the influence of some of those variables on the level of English acquisition and role of identity displayed in their writing. The student participants are identified by names which are not their own, but which appear as references in their essays.

The first of the three students is Che, a 22-year-old Peruvian who had been in the U.S. approximately five years when he was a student in my ESL writing class; he was in his second semester at university, studying software engineering and business; his future plans include attending graduate school for business management. He had completed two years at, and had graduated from, a U.S. secondary school. Che's mother is a native Peruvian and his father, now deceased, was an American working first in Peru then in Malaysia, providing Che with an international and well-traveled childhood. In a questionnaire and in interviews, Che said that he did not have any ESL classes during primary or secondary school per se, but had attended international schools in Peru and Malaysia where subject area classes were taught in English and in Spanish. He identifies himself as both a bilingual and an ESL learner, though he feels his speaking and writing skills are stronger in Spanish and he is a stronger reader in English. When conversing with his parents and siblings, he uses Spanish exclusively; with friends, he uses a mix of English and Spanish, depending on the person(s) with whom he is conversing. University-related activities (reading, writing, conversing with professors, etc.) are all conducted in English. When he dreams at night, he says he dreams in Spanish. The question of dream language was included in the questionnaire since research (DeKoninck et al 1988, 1990; Foulkes et al 1993; Schumann 1994) indicates that dreams are responsive to the learning performances and cognitive functioning of second language learners and that the level of verbal communication in an L2 incorporated in dreams is indicative of the level of proficiency of the learner in the L2. Therefore, in order to establish a sense of proficiency and

language identity for these participants, they were asked about the language(s) in which they dream.

Pedro shares some commonalities with Che beyond their Spanish L1. Pedro was 20 years old when he was enrolled in my ESL class which was also during his second term at university; both he and Che were in the class at the same time, thus receiving the same instruction. Pedro is currently studying engineering and business; although he is less certain of his future plans than is Che, he stated in an interview that he would like to continue to study as a postgraduate student. At the time of the class, Pedro had been in the U.S. for six years and had attended U.S. schools for five years. He began schooling in the U.S. at age 15 in the eighth grade; this would have made him older than the traditional students by about two years. Pedro came to the U.S. with his parents and siblings, as refugees from Colombia. Though reluctant to talk about his life in Colombia, Pedro did explain that his family was targeted by guerrilla soldiers and was given political asylum in the U.S. Their move from Colombia was abrupt and without many resources. Prior to coming to the U.S., Pedro had no formal ESL classes, but was put into ESL classes upon enrolling in school in the U.S.; those classes continued until his graduation from secondary school. Pedro identifies himself as both a bilingual and an ESL learner, as does Che; however, Pedro considers his Spanish-speaking skills superior to his oral English skill, but he feels stronger with reading and writing in English. His communication with family members is in Spanish exclusively, with friends and for university functions in English exclusively, and he dreams equally in English and in Spanish.

Noel has a decidedly different history than his two peers. He was 20 years old when he took my ESL class during his first semester at university. He was born in Puerto Rico and emigrated with his family to the U.S. when he was one year old. He is a computer

engineering major with a minor in Business and also plans on attending graduate school. Though all of his formal schooling had been in the U.S. beginning at age four, he was placed in ESL classes from ages 5 through 12. Noel considers himself to be bilingual, though he feels his academic skills are stronger in English. He converses with his parents in Spanish, but with his siblings in English. His interaction with friends and with university contacts is in English, and he dreams in both English and Spanish.

7.2.2Writing Assignment

In order to analyze the differences in individual voice in academic writing across a continuum, it was decided to choose an essay prompt where conventions of academic writing could be most expected. I chose to use essays which had all been written in response to a research report prompt. Though the students attended the class in different terms (Noel in fall 2006; Che and Pedro in spring 2007) and therefore had slightly different writing prompts, the readings assigned prior to beginning the research project were the same as were most of the parameters for the assignment. Also, since the research assignment was given late in the term, the students had ample instruction and previous experience with writing assignments and revision. This would ensure that the students had similar instruction and university writing experience before working on this assignment.

Because the writing prompts were for a research report, I expected certain characteristics and conventions in these essays: references to texts and authors, reporting verbs, a minimum of personal references, organizational structures including a clear introduction, supporting body paragraphs, and a conclusion which summarized the main points of the essay. As I was the instructor for the classes in which these essays were assigned, I was familiar with the readings and lessons taught in preparation for the

Writing Prompt for Che's and Pedro's Research Reports:
Write an essay that discusses your chosen work of art in the context of Allison's claims, as well as interacting with at least three of your additional sources. To help you choose a focus for your paper, consider the following questions: Why do you like this particular work of art? Does the image speak to some "protected" feeling that you have? What makes your image art? Does your image fit Allison's criteria, or does it challenge her judgments? What does your research tell you about how others react or respond to your image? How do these other viewpoints compare/contrast with yours? Are these differences important? Do these other responses change your opinion of the work? Do they affect the art itself?
Note that you are not to write a paper that discusses your chosen work of art. This essay is a discussion and definition of art—how do you define art? what are your criteria for judging art? Etc.—not a research paper on the life of the artist. Use your chosen piece of art only as an example to support your argument, much in the same way Allison uses the Jesus picture or the photographs to explain and support her definition of art.
You must back up all claims you make with published, appropriate sources. You will be using skills we will develop in class which involve reading, summarizing, analyzing, explaining, evaluating, and investigating. Appropriate sources include library books, academic journal articles, and reference materials. **Your research must include a MINIMUM of two (2) appropriate sources in addition to our two (2) of our class readings**. The piece of art you chose may be considered one of your sources. You may use additional sources, such as interviews, personal histories, etc., but these do not count as your minimum of three published sources (our two class readings and your additional source) plus the piece of artwork you chose. ***(Spring 2007)***

Writing Prompt for Noel's Research Report:
The research paper will not really be different from the first two papers. The major difference with the third paper is that you will have to find the source yourself. This means that you will need to find an essay on art, theory of dramatic art, theory of a relation between art and commerce, theory on the psychology of art- some article or chapter in a scholarly work that makes an argument about art. There are different ways to go about locating a topic for the third paper; students must locate a source independently, and more importantly, develop an analysis of a source on your own. In other words, using the Allison and Winterson essays as a starting point, what would you like to explore, argue, prove about art that would require more than the two essays in order to make a case?
This is NOT an opinion paper; you must back up all claims you make with published, appropriate sources. You will be using skills we will develop in class which involve reading, summarizing, analyzing, explaining, evaluating, and investigating. Appropriate sources include library books, academic journal articles, and reference materials. **Your research must include a MINIMUM of two (2) appropriate sources in addition to our two (2) of our class readings**. You may use additional sources, such as interviews, personal histories, etc., but these do not count as your minimum of three published sources and/or the two class texts. ***(Fall 2006)***

Figure 7.1: Writing prompts for case study essays

assignment as well as the previous essays written by these students. Therefore, I felt comfortable that, based on previous work and classroom lessons, the students would be able to produce a research essay which would meet the minimum requirements of an acceptable academic essay. The writing prompts appear in Figure 7.1.

7.3 Ideational Positioning

7.3.1 Different Interests, Objects of Study

Just as the semantic categories indicated in the corpus study revealed distinct areas of interest for G1.5 students, the topics discussed in these essays reflect those categories, reveal

the interest areas of these three students, and demonstrate the semantic categories and topics of concern to them. Put simplistically, the students interpreted the prompt to write about what they were interested in:

Example 1: from Che essay [40]

[C6] (1)In the image of "El Che" I can personally say that it provokes me. (2)It produces my stomach to twist and my head to spin with ideas and memories not only of my life but his. (3)When I see his image I feel hurt, heartbroken even. (4)Unfair death is one of the reasons. (5)He has seen a lot of poverty and mistreated people and this is what started his mind games to make the world a better place. (6)Most of the things he has seen I have also and I compare his life to mine and that provokes uncertainty in my life.
[C7] (1)Uncertainty is also in Dorothy's [Allison] criteria for art. (2)If art does not make the viewer feel uncertain about anything then it is just a picture of that person's life. (3)This uncertainty she speaks about is tied with unanswered questions. (4)Dorothy says "Art should provoke more questions than answers" (Dorothy 48). (5)When people look at art work the first step is to compare to our database. (6)If we can't find anything we then come to the questioning stage. (7)Art can usually only be described by the painter himself, since art involves too many personal feelings. (8)So we ask questions. (9)It is within human nature to find the truth and what it stands for.

Example 2: from Pedro essay

[P2] (4)This man [Botero] has brought something more that a name to my country, he has been given the country and his people hope for a better future. (5)Colombia has been involved in civil war for more than 40 years; this is common knowledge for a native. (6)Due to this civil war it preferable for him not to live in his homeland, because he faces the danger of being kidnapped or killed (Times International p 3). (7)Therefore, he chose to live abroad, as his own form of exile. (8)Even though the pain of being childless is the worst feeling a man can endure, it is followed by being been exile of his own homeland...
[P6] (1) For me this is art at its best the reputation, the perseverance, and unfortunately the tragedy. (2)However, for Dorothy Allison the definition of art is very complex. (3)There are parts that I agree with, and of course there are some parts that I do not agree with.

Example 3: from Noel essay

[N4] (6) Winterson is asserting that the criterions for art are based on its aesthetics. (7)She says that the emotional grasp that art emits is what defines art. (8)Based on her definition of art, historicality doesn't make a difference as long as the artwork itself

[40] Example sentences in this chapter are referred to by the paragraph and sentence number of the essay in which they appear. Rather than label examples by chapter number, it seemed prudent here to refer to the original essay, which appears in Appendix G, for easier reference and referral. Therefore in this chapter, examples from student essays will be identified by writer, paragraph number and sentence number. For example, C2.4 would indicate Che's essay, paragraph 2, sentence 4.

> touches a deeper emotion inside of the audience, thus contrasting Noel Carroll and Jerrold Levinson's definitions of art. (9)The problem with Winterson's theory is the emotional grasp that art provides may vary from person to person. (10)This proposes a problem because a large debate would take place for each individual pieces of artwork. (11)Thus this theory is not as reliable as that of Carroll and Levinson's theories.

These three students position themselves as interested in specific subjects through their choices of topics and the semantic choices they make to discuss their topics. Words from the semantic categories discussed in Chapter 4 are especially prevalent in Che's and Pedro's essays: "El Che"*; civil war, exile, homeland* ('Politics' category); *childless* ('Kinship' category); *kidnap, kill, hurt, heartbroken, poverty, pain* ('Difficulty' category); *life, death* ('Alive' category); *contrasting, compare, debate* ('Comparing' category); *seen* ('Sight' category); *speaks* ('Speech' category). Both Che and Pedro choose to write about a piece of art representative of their home countries and with political reference. Pedro's essay also deals with family and Botero's loss of his son as impetus for his painting, going into detail of the son's car accident, which Pedro felt was necessary to include in his essay in order for the reader to understand the artist's pain and the importance of his art (see Pedro essay, paragraph 5 in Appendix G.2). Che's essay discusses in detail the historical background of Che Guevara and the Cuban revolution (Che essay, paragraphs 2-4). Both these students strayed from the essay assignment which did not ask for background of the artists or image, but how the image itself relayed a particular attitude or response and aided in defining art. However, both these students' felt their choices required more information to engage the reader with the same sense of importance each student had for his topic. For both of these students, there is a strong personal association with the art/artist they chose and its/his representation of their home countries and value systems.

The lexical ranges of these three students are distinct. Noel's essay, for example, includes less vocabulary from the semantic categories, but does include lexis that might be

more expected in an academic essay. In example 3, he uses terms like *asserting, criterions for art, historicality, thus contrasting, theory,* and *debate.* It is interesting to note that his words might not be correct (*criterions, historicality*); however, he attempts to use lexis similar to the vocabulary in his readings and more formal in nature. Twice in his essay he introduces an author using the phrase, *an author by the name of...* (N3.2 & N4.1). This contrasts with Pedro, who drops in the name of someone he is about to quote with no introduction or explanation: *"...that Mrs. Walt/Paris states...* (P2.2). Che, on the other hand, has a less formal way of introducing the reader to Fidel Castro: *"...Guevara met his future partner in crime and fellow communist Fidel Castro*" (C2.4). Another lexical note from Che's essay is his use of the word, *database*, twice (C7.5 & C9.3) to refer to an individual's personal knowledge. Given that he is a software engineering student, it is interesting that lexis from his discipline would find its way into an essay on art; there were no such localized lexical examples from the other two essays.

7.3.2 Different Views of Knowledge-Making

Because self-representation in ideational positioning involves more than just semantic choices, it is necessary to also look at *how* the writers indicate their preferences for particular topics and *how* they present their knowledge and understanding. As discussed previously, the stereotypical academic essay is objective and discusses knowledge that is universally true; it does this by using present tense verbs or passive voice to indicate distance and a lack of references to the writer's processes or specific human agency. The view that all writing is self-representative negates the stereotype and suggests a continuum on which different positions can appear as more or less subjective/objective and more or less universal/local. While some of the relevant features will be discussed in more detail in Section 7.5 dealing with textual positioning, it is important to refer to some features here, such as the students' use of verbs, specific references, and more.

Che's essay presents a highly subjective position and presents information and knowledge from a highly personal perspective. He uses past tense verbs to narrate events in Guevara's life as in the following sentences:

> C2.2 Throughout his travels around South America, Guevara **encountered** many underprivileged and impoverished people who **were being mistreated**...
>
> C3.4 Slowly, Guevara r**ealized** that his ideals and beliefs regarding communism **were** different from Fidel's interpretation.
>
> C4.3 Even though the American government **was** present in Guevara's shooting,[Che's punctuation] they **assumed** no responsibility for the fight that **led** to his capture.

He also uses some passive voice constructions to refocus the reader's attention to relevant subjects as in C2.2 above in discussing the people in South America, or as in C4.5 where he refers to Guevara's death: "*His death was not deserved*." Che also makes ample use of present tense forms to interpret an author's statements, reference personal feelings, and suggest universal truths. Sentence examples C5.2, C5.3, C6.3 and C7.3 illustrate:

> C5.2 Dorothy **describes** clearly that art **has** "the power to provoke (Dorothy 44).
>
> C5.3 Art **has** the power to induce different type of feelings.
>
> C6.3 When I **see** his image I **feel** hurt, heartbroken even.
>
> C7.3 This uncertainty she [Allison] **speaks** about **is tied** with unanswered questions.

In each of the above examples, Che is using present tense to claim knowledge derived from human reference or personal familiarity.

Che uses his own experience and opinion to suggest a perspective or value of the reality he discusses. In example 1 above, from paragraphs 6 & 7 of his essay, Che claims personal knowledge, and physical reactions to the image of "El Che". He refers to Guevara's death as *unfair* and refers to "*...the things he has seen I have also and I compare his life to mine...*", setting himself up the expert, with lived experience to draw on. He frequently uses

first person pronoun, *I* to refer to personal knowledge and specifically refers to accomplishments he hopes to achieve, such as "*...tearing that bubble down...*" (C8.19), or dreams for his own future, as in "*I want to do great things*" (C8.17) or "*I wish I could continue his legacy...*" (C8.18).

Though he references Allison's text to back up some of his claims, his references refer to her by first name, as in C5.2 above, marking his text as not adhering to formal, academic formatting. He sometimes repeats himself in his essay as in C7.5 and C9.3, and sometimes appears contradictory as in paragraphs 5 and 6 where he interprets Allison's definition of art to mean that art must provoke feeling. Though the image of "El Che" provokes deep feeling in him, he claims Allison would not consider it art. Therefore his logic is not always clear and his interpretation of text not always accurate. In addition, he attempts to make connections between his discussion of the Che image, its ability to provoke uncertainty in him, and Allison's argument that art should provoke uncertainty. In paragraph 6, for example, he explains the impact of the image on him and why it makes him feel uncertain. Uncertainty is his transitional theme to paragraph 7 where he interprets Allison's idea of uncertainty in art. Paragraph 8 then continues on with a list of questions he has about Che and life's unfairness. He does not, however, explicitly link the Allison concept to his questions, but rather introduces a discussion of a different Allison point in paragraph 9. His organizational pattern, then, does not necessarily help the reader develop the same interpretation or relationship between the Allison essay and his chosen piece of art and argument. Had Che included additional resources, as the assignment called for, and/or made more explicit connections, he might have been more successful in connecting Allison's definition of art with his example piece.

Pedro's essay would appear on a different place on a continuum of subjectivity-local/objectivity-universal. His choice of verb types represents a range of actions, mental activities, and occurrences, and he is inconsistent in his expression of tense and aspect, as the following examples illustrate:

> P1.9 Lastly, it **is** incredible how Botero **converted** a painful moment of his life and **created** a painting that **astonishes** almost everyone.
>
> P2.5 Colombia **has been involved** in civil war for more than 40 years; this **is** common knowledge for a native.
>
> P6.6 She [Winterson] **reaffirms** this later when she **states**...

In the above examples, Pedro uses a variety of verb types and tenses/aspects. In P1.9, he narrates a specific past time event using the action verbs, *converted* and *created*, and reverts to present tense in the following clause, *astonishes*, to describe the continuing effect of Botero's painting on viewers. More reminiscent of spoken language than adhering to the formal conventions of academic writing, the mixture of tenses here expresses a timeless reaction to a work of art. The idea of universal truths is exemplified with Pedro's use of present tense verbs in P6.6 to describe a passage from the Winterson text. Pedro occasionally uses passive voice as well, as in P2.5, where he puts the emphasis on his country and its civil war, something of which he has personal experience. Sometimes, however, Pedro's verb choices appear to be subject to his level of skill with language rather than a rhetorical decision made to influence his reader, as in P5.4-6:

> [P5]... (4)After the accident Botero **lock** himself in his studio on Paris where he **created** a lot of work **base** on his lots [sp] son, he **believes** that this **help** him heal and cope with his lost [sp/word form]. (5)Botero **add** that this **is** why art **is** so sacred him, because it **saves** him from his worst moment. (6)His other son **affirms** that his father **has not full** [adv] **recovered** from his loss...

In these sentences, Pedro gives background information on Botero's motivations for his artwork. However, his lack of facility with verb agreement and tense, as well as other

grammatical and mechanical errors, make the passage unclear regarding its temporality. For example, in P5.6, we do not know if this statement from Botero's son refers to the present or if it represents a past interview or, if, in P5.4, Botero is still healing or is healed.

Pedro's stance on what he is writing about is evident throughout the essay. He uses phrases like, *I agree with*, *the way I see it*, and *I believe*, multiple times (e.g. P5.12, P6.3, P6.5, and P7.5). In addition, he overtly expresses opinion, using forms like, *it is incredible* (P1.9), *the worst feeling a man can endure* (P2.8), and *I do not blame her* (P7.5). He refers to himself explicitly and aligns himself with a view of knowledge based on personal opinion and beliefs.

Similar to Che's approach to knowledge-making, Pedro discusses the role of Botero as artist as well as his talent and motivation before going on to discuss Allison's of art. He only links the two discussions in one place (P6.1-2): "*For me, this is art at its best the reputation, the perseverance* [spelling Pedro's], *and unfortunately the tragedy. However, for Dorothy Allison the definition of art is very complex*." Paragraphs 6 and 7 go on to discuss the Allison text, but never links it back to his discussion of Botero. In fact in P7.10, he states "*Nature is where most of the artist get there* [spelling Pedro's] *ideas*..." This seems contradictory to his discussion above about Botero, who was inspired by the loss of his son. He does refer specifically to Botero and Allison, though he refers to Allison in his essay as *Mrs. Dorothy*, rather than by the expected last name only, which he does do for Botero; he does not however refer to any other sources of information or research which was a requirement of the assignment. Pedro limits his research to one text, one piece of art, and personal reaction.

Unlike Pedro, Noel seems to have mastered his use of verb tenses and overall his essay is the most representative of a *typical* of academic style of the three essays. Throughout his essay, he uses present tense or present progressive verbs to interpret the ideas of the authors he discusses; his verb choices all would fall into the Biber et al (1999) categories of mental, communication or activity verbs. Examples from his essay include:

> N1.1 An average person in our modern day society and age **looks** at a painting and **considers** it to be art because it **has been proclaimed** to be art by professionals like artists and art critics.
>
> N2.5 Thus, Carroll **explains**, in detail, the definition of art that **applies** to all of them.
>
> N3.3 He [Levinson] **proposes** to answer the widely debated topic by comparing the historical definition of art to the present.
>
> N4.1 An author by the name of Jeanette Winterson also **attempts** to define art, but her methods **consist** of using similes and metaphors to bring about what **can be considered** art.

Noel's use of present tense throughout his essay to represent the ideas of the authors suggests that the interpretation of their ideas represent some truth in their writing. He also employs some passive voice constructions as in the underlined examples in N1.1 and N4.1 above, suggesting an objective, universal truth is being made, though his restatement of Winterson's method is inaccurate (in N4.1). His reference to specific writers gives a certain authority to his statements.

His representation of information is not without personal evaluation, however. In example 3 above, N4.9-11 offers Noel's view of one author's definition of art:

> [N4]... (9)The **problem** with Winterson's theory is the emotional grasp that art provides may vary from person to person. (10)**This proposes a problem** ***because*** a **large debate** would take place for each individual pieces of artwork. (11)***Thus*** this theory is **not as reliable** as that of Carroll and Levinson's theories.

Noel chooses to describe Winterson's theory as a *problem*, causing a *large debate* and not being as *reliable* as other views. His choice of lexis makes his position clear. In N4.1 from

his essay he uses the verb, *attempts*, to introduce Winterson's definition of art, already suggesting that he is not supportive of her argument. In this opening paragraph, where he introduces the ideas he will discuss, Noel refers to the three authors he will contrast with a cultural overuse of the definite article and demonstratives: "***The*** *three authors* ***that*** *provide* ***these*** *theories are ...*" (N1.5). While grammatically there are not problems here, the emphasis on these authors as the only ones trying to define art and specific theories of art could either be meant to encourage the reader of the relevance of his approach or it could represent a problem with, for example, article usage in a very advanced G1.5 student. In N3.7, Noel refers to Levinson's theory as being *bluntly* stated, suggesting a less elegant discussion in Levinson's article than in the Carroll article he discusses prior to this. Thus, Noel's use of lexis and lexico-grammar, while adhering to many expected conventions of academic research writing, still identifies him with particular ideas and opinions.

7.3.3 Summary of Ideational Positioning in Individual Essays

Analysis of three individual essays suggests that these three students approach knowledge-making in very different ways, and exhibit varying degrees of mastery of written English. Features marked for saliency in the corpus study appear in their essays to varying degrees as well. For example, both Che and Pedro employ lexis highlighted in the semantically tagged categories and use lived experience as reference. The students use past tense verbs for narrating events, while present tense is used to express what they consider to be *universal truths*. Though these students represent different levels of novice writing, each includes stance in his presentation of information, though Noel is less direct than the other two. Despite the same gender, L1, similar courses of study, and similar exposure to university-writing, the individual voices of these of the three students indicate different approaches to presenting knowledge and varying levels of lexico-grammatical ability.

7.4 Interpersonal Positioning

7.4.1 Sense of Certainty

Some of the features discussed in Section 7.3 and attributed to the student's position on knowledge-making can also be seen as a reflection of their own sense of authoritativeness and as conveying messages about their relationship with readers. The use of the categorical present tense can also suggest a sense of certainty on the part of these students. First person pronouns in Che's and Pedro's essays and evaluative phrases in all three essays project a sense of surety in the writings of these G1.5 students. A review of these features and a closer look at others will reveal how these students convey messages about a sense of their own authority.

The above discussion of verbs demonstrated the mix of present and past tense forms in the three essays. Using a categorical present tense, as in the above examples, suggests that the students are reporting on universal truths, facts not to be questioned. In some places, where past tense was used without attribution to a source, the student writer is also making a claim to authority and positioning himself as knowledgeable in a particular area. For example, Che writes the following:

> [C4] (1) He described clearly moving on and joining another revolution that needed his help in the country of Bolivia. (2)Soon after his arrival, the Bolivian government's military captured him and killed him. (3)Even though the American government was present in Guevara's shooting, they assumed no responsibility for the fight that led to his capture. (4)The image of "El Che" is a historical representation of his life, not as the communist, but as a true leader to the Cuban people. (5)His death was not deserved.

In this paragraph, Che does not cite any sources for his information. Though it is a narration of past events, the lack of attribution positions Che as the authority; he even makes claims about government officials, but with no evidence. He then moves from the narration to an interpretation of the figure of Che based on these events (C4.4) and then to an evaluation of

the events (C4.5), again positioning himself as the authority. While the lack of citations could be evaluated as a form of plagiarism or sloppy research writing, as Che's instructor and interviewer, I can say that he had no intention of either plagiarizing or of producing sloppy work; his passion for his topic simply overpowered what he had learned in class about academic writing, what he had been practicing in other assignments and in earlier drafts of this paper. For Che, the message dictated the form.

In Section 7.3.2, I pointed out some places in the three essays where the students' opinions were indicated and added to their position toward knowledge-making. This sense of certainty represented by those stance phrases is present in all three essays. The lack of modal auxiliaries, for example, to make tentative claims is striking. In Che's essay, only one modal appears and this is to give advice to Dorothy Allison, an accomplished writer and artist: "*Allison **should** reconsider her definition of art.*" (C12.13). Pedro uses only one softening term in his essay: "*And **maybe** evidently would like to know more about the artist, and admire his dedication and hard work throughout the years*" (P4.9). In this sentence, Pedro is suggesting that an audience will want to find out more about an artist when they are moved by his art. The use of *maybe* suggests that this result might only be a possibility; however Pedro pairs it with *evidently* which indicates a logical result, thus negating the sense of possibility. Clearly Pedro writing includes grammatical problems which can sometimes obscure his meaning; therefore his intended sense of certainty here is questionable. Noel also only uses one modal in his essay. In an interpretation of Winterson's ideas on art, he writes: "*Winterson's definition of art is intricate in the sense that she has criteria for what art **must** do in order for the artwork to be considered art*" (N4.4). Here he has made Winterson the authority, indicating her requirements for art. Noel's sense of authority does not come from examples of lived experience, but via his interpretation and evaluation of the authors he

discusses. Examples above reviewed his stance on Winterson's essay; he also evaluates the ideas of another of his sources by reviewing Carroll's theory of art as "*probably the safest definition or procedure to use...*" (N2.8). Though these three students represent different levels of writing ability, they all share a sense of authority in their writing, a distinctive feature of G1.5 essays.

7.4.2 Different Relationships Between Writer and Reader

We saw in the corpus data that G1.5 student writers use personal pronouns far more frequently than the other student writers. Section 7.3.2 detailed some examples of first person pronoun use in these essays as examples of knowledge-making. Pedro and Che both use first person pronouns to indicate stance and authority in various places in their essays. In addition, Che often uses the first plural pronoun forms to create an inclusive relationship with the reader, positioning himself as one of a community, as 'representative' (see Table 5.2):

> [C12]... (15)**We** live, we suffer, **we** feel and we understand the differences between these. (16)This is what makes **us** human. (17)**We** are knowledgeable. (18)Art should provoke familiar feelings. (19)It should tell more about **us** than the painter, and it should defiantly [spelling Che's] leave a question mark.

In this passage, which is part of the conclusion to his essay, Che uses categorical present tense verbs along with inclusive *we* to affect his relationship with the reader(s), marking him as both self-assured and in solidarity with readers.

Che, in fact, positions himself throughout his essay as having a conversation with a sympathetic reader. Not only does he use first person pronouns, but he introduces interrogatives into his text, setting up a relationship with his interlocutors very different from the typical declarative mood of most academic texts. Unlike the questions discussed in Chapter 5.3, Che's questions are not part of his introduction or conclusion, but appear in the

middle of his essay as questions he asks himself, letting his reader in on his personal thought process and feelings:

> [C8] (1)Question and uncertainties is everything I see when I take a look at "El Che's" face. (2)Why communism? (3)Why Fidel? (4)Why Bolivia? (5)Most of these questions will forever remain unanswered, but these questions are about his life. (6)Then I ask myself am I like him? (7)Do I want to be like him? (8)What is it about him that keeps my attention? (9)My dad's job has given me the opportunity to travel at such a young age. (10)At the same time I have seen so much unfairness, mistreatment and poverty that when I look back tears just run. (11)Why was he killed? (12)Why was the American government there? (13)Where is his body (Escobar)? (14)These questions will never be answered but in my mind I have a good idea that all three questions are tied together.

As discussed in Chapter 5, the use of questions as rhetorical devices in writing sometimes occurs in G1.5 essays, though it is not an expected feature in academic texts. Here, however, their presence suggests that Che is letting us in on his private thoughts, not typical for a research report where collation of information is expected. The tone then is personal, informal, as if he is having a conversation with someone rather than producing a piece of academic writing.

Pedro's essay is also very personal in subject matter and he often positions himself as authority, as indicated above in the discussion of his use of *I*. He also makes his position clear by his use of the superlative ("*...the* ***worst*** *feeling a man can endure*" in P2.6) and with overt expressions of agreement ("***I agree*** *with...*" in P6.2 & P6.5). Unlike Che, Pedro does not employ inclusive *we* as device for creating relationship with his readers, nor does he use questions. His writing is not as emotional or conversational as Che's essay; however, he does employ other features which position him in solidarity with his readers and in a way reminiscent of conversational English.

Pedro's use of the pronoun, *it*, for example, and his frequent use of conjunctions convey both certainty and assertiveness in expressing his position to the reader. As previously mentioned, Pedro employs nonreferential *it* to state opinion:

> P5.8 **It is just unbelievable** how Botero was able to channel most of his pain...
>
> P5.10 However sometimes **it is better** not to know too much...

Pedro also uses *it* in a construction influenced by his L1 (Hacker 2004:25, Swan & Smith 2001:105): "*The love that a father has for his son **it** cannot be measure* [word form Pedro's]" (P5.12). This repetition of a subject pronoun, a common Spanish structure, is often heard in conversation with Spanish L1 speakers of English, but is often edited out in formal written English; thus Pedro is inserting a conversational structure into his academic text, creating a less formal relationship between reader and writer. Though this type of structure would have been pointed out to him in previous writing assignments and in draft copies, he continues to include it in his final research report. Another conversational element appearing in Pedro's essay is his choice of sentence structures. Pedro inserts subordinate conjunctions quite a bit into his writing; his use of *because*, in particular, is representative of the discussion in Chapter 5.4 regarding its appearance in the corpus data. While most of Pedro's uses of *because* give cause or reason for the main clause in the sentence, he does also use the conjunction to represent different meanings, as in:

> P6.5 I agree with Mrs. Dorothy here, **because** art should create some sore [spelling Pedro's] of reaction and impulse something that you never thought of getting and the art peace [spelling Pedro's] is what triggers it.
>
> P6.7 I also agree to what she says here **because** if you impress enough by a peace of art it is as if it has come to be part of you.

In Sentence 6.5, Pedro is using *because* to express a point of view (Schleppegrell 1996), explaining his opinion on the purpose of art, not giving a cause for the author's reasoning.

P6.7 also deals with opinion, but indicates Pedro's process of knowledge-making (Schleppegrell 1996). *Because* here is introducing an assertion about the influence of art on an individual, not the cause of his agreement. Pedro frequently employs coordinating conjunctions as well. Interestingly, he uses *but* only internally in sentences to set up a contrast, as one would expect in academic writing. He does not use *but*, as described in Chapter 5.4, in the more conversational way, to introduce sentences. He does introduce sentences with *however* and *therefore* (e.g. P3.2 and P2.7, respectively), and he does begin one sentence with *and*: "***And*** *maybe evidently would like to know more about the artist...*" (P4.9). As this is the only instance of a sentence beginning this way, and given the other grammatical issues in the sentence (such as lack of subject) it is hard to determine if this was a deliberate choice on Pedro's part, or a sentence fragment which was not corrected from previous drafts.

The relatively self-assured way Noel writes about his topic suggests a sense of power over his readers. Unlike his peers, Noel does use any first person pronouns in his essay; he does not refer to personal experience as evidence of his claims. Noel establishes his authority by citing *expert* sources and interpreting their theories. His essay is written primarily in the declarative form, as is expected in academic writing, though he does approach his topic twice with questions for the reader:

> N1.3 The true question at hand is what is the criterion for art in this modern day and age?
>
> N3.1 The simple question "what is art?" has provoked much thought throughout the ages.

Unlike Che's questions, which represent an internal dialogue he shares with readers, Noel's questions are devices used to introduce his topic and discussion thereof. These are not personal musings. In fact, Noel quotes one of his sources, Noel Carroll:

N2.3 He [Carroll] raises the questions "First of all, how do we identify or recognize or establish something to be a work of art?"

Noel's own use of questions in his essay reflect this same kind of device to introduce a discussion, suggesting that perhaps Noel is taking structural and stylistic cues from his *expert* sources and trying to incorporate them into his own writing. When Noel refers to his sources, they are always cited by last name or entire name, unlike both Che and Pedro who use inconsistent and often inappropriate forms for referring to other authors. Noel, overall, shows very few informal features in his essay and his voice type is one of the objective academic, positioning himself as a fairly self-assured member of the community. In many respects, though there are grammatical and contextual issues with his essay, Noel's writing represents the far end of the continuum where historically composition instructors try to steer their students.

7.4.3 Summary of Interpersonal Positioning in Individual Essays

As with ideational positioning, the three students demonstrate different levels of proficiency in appropriate, accepted ways of representing themselves in academic writing. Elements of interpersonal positioning which appeared as salient in the corpus study appear in the individual essays, such as use of personal pronouns, use of questions, evaluative phrases, conjunction use, and more. Che, for example, makes no attempt to limit his personal involvement with the text, inserting personal pronouns and overt opinion in the essay, which was to be based on research. Though some of their choices may be the result of their level of knowledge of English grammar, the voice positioning of each student is distinct and unique in each text.

7.5 Textual Positioning

7.5.1 Different Views of How a Text Should Be Constructed

The student writers of these essays position themselves in relation to the mode of communication itself. Their choices regarding how they construct their texts represent something of themselves and this has already been illustrated by some of what has been previously discussed. The three essays represent three different voices in terms of preferences to academic writing and the formality we expect therein. In an academic research report, convention dictates that we would find reporting verbs, passive voice constructions, phrasal coordination, and citations; some of these features are present to differing degrees in these essays. In addition, corpus data discussed in Chapter 6 suggested that G1.5 students also over-represent superlative and comparative adjectives in these texts and conjunctions rather than the expected reduced clauses; these features also are present. Each essay is also unique in its level of formality of lexis and in its organizational structure.

Of the three essays, Che's represents an "I-write-like-I-speak" voice (Ivanič & Camps 2001:28). As already discussed, his essay is full of first person references and past tense narrative. He occasionally cites sources, but refers to the author by first name. His sentences are often short with little *academic* lexis. Examples from his opening paragraph illustrate:

> [C1] (1)Art is extremely powerful. (2)It might not seem powerful but art can trigger so many feelings inside a person. (3)It can change your life. (4)Dorothy Allison author of "This is Our World" describes the impact that art has had in her life. (5)Art has not had a big impact in my life but the image of Ernesto Guevara is the only impact art gives me. (6)Allison has a personal definition of art and she lives by this definition. (7)The definition of art others have is slightly different, but how art can affect a person and the world is the same.

Sentences like C1.1 and C1.3 are extremely short and choppy; his words are often monosyllabic. Che uses the coordinating conjunction *but* in C1.5 and C1.7 to link what should be contrasting ideas in independent clauses; however, his use of *but* is more a

demonstration of the way his thoughts are flowing rather than a formally constructed contrast. For example, in C1.5, the first clause would suggest to the reader that what follows the *but* should be that art has not been an important influence on him. While he does suggest that in the second clause, the focus is on a particular image which has had an impact. Similarly in C1.7, the idea of contrast is present, as indicated by *different* in clause 1 and *same* in clause 2; however, the logic of his claim in clause 2 is not clear and contradictory to the claim made in clause 1. In fact, in paragraph 1, there are many contradictory statements and non sequiturs, giving the impression more of colloquial conversation or a thought process rather than prepared writing. Throughout his essay, his lexis is permeated with informal, oral vocabulary such as *partner in crime* (C2.4), *bad mouthing* (C3.5), *mind games* (C6.5), positioning Che as trying to create a text representative of the immediacy of spoken discourse.

Organizationally, it appears that Che attempts to arrange his text according to expected conventions, though not very successfully. His opening paragraph above does not clearly indicate a thesis for his essay, though the apparently contradictory statements do reflect much of what gets discussed in his essay. His body paragraphs move between facts about Guevara's life, interspersed with Che's personal reactions; the facts are presented as universal statements, with no reference to source information. In paragraph 5, he introduces "Allison Dorothy" and the fact that she would not consider Guevara's image as art. However, his description of Allison's position on art would seem to contradict that statement. There is no attempt to integrate the discussion of Guevara's history with Allison's definition of art. There is no transition between paragraph 5 and his discussion in paragraph 6 of his reaction to the "El Che" image. Nor is there a clear transition to paragraph 7 where he begins a discussion of Allison's concept of uncertainty in art. His essay continues to move back and forth between personal response to Guevara's image and his interpretations of some point in

the Allison text. He is somewhat repetitive in content and often appears to be *thinking out loud* on paper, rather than composing a piece of formal writing. His concluding paragraph attempts to summarize his main points, but, like his introductory paragraph, his sentences do not flow logically and make unclear, unfocused statements, as in:

> C12.14 Allison's definition is outdated due to the fact that people live today.
>
> C12.15 We live, we suffer, we feel and we understand the differences between these.
>
> C12.20 Human nature is research

He sets up a false dichotomy in C12.14 by suggesting that living people would be a reason for a particular definition of art to be outdated. C12.15 uses an unclear demonstrative pronoun, *these*; as this sentence follows the C12.14 where no plural reference has been made, Che's sentence is confusing at best, as is C12.20. Overall, Che makes a loose attempt at organizing his text in an expected way, but his mode of communication is primarily that of an oral, informal voice type.

Pedro's textual positioning represents several simultaneous voice types. It is less informal than Che's, though equally as personal. In addition, Pedro presents a "reader-considerate" voice (Ivanič & Camps 2001:29) by his frequent use of linking devices to signal the reader on the relationships between his clauses and sentences. While Pedro struggles more with grammatical structures, the informal lexis he inserts is less frequent than in Che's essay, and some of his lexis suggests an attempt at a more academic voice. Pedro's organizational structure also suggests an attempt at formal academic voice positioning.

Pedro's use of first person pronoun particularly to express stance has already been discussed. Unlike Che's short, staccato sentence types, many of Pedro's sentences are longer and combine clauses and fronted adverbial subordinators. If we compare Pedro's

introduction paragraph to Che's, we can see a difference in sentence types though not necessarily an academic lexis:

> [P1] (1)There are many different components that compose the life of any given individual. (2)Art happens to be one these components, but for some of us it is complicated to define art. (3)To me art is a reflection of the human mind and it is the interpretation of emotions and experiences, within our world. (4)When experiences and emotions are combined together, the outcome is simply what I call art. (5)The name of the picture I chose for my research is Pedro on a Horse, and the artist behind the painting is no one else than Fernando Botero. (6)There are many reasons why I chose this painting, but I am only going to focus on three. (7)Primarily, it because of the good reputation Fernando Botero has given to his country Colombia, which is also my country. (8)Second, the life of any given artist is full uncertainties; this also show's that people that persevere achieve great things. (9)Lastly, it is incredible how Botero converted a painful moment of his life and created a painting that astonishes almost everyone.

P1.2, P1.3, P1.5 and P1.6 combine independent clauses with coordinating conjunctions. Pedro fronts a subordinate adverbial clause in P1.4, varying the sentence structure type, a frequent device in G1.5 writing as seen in Chapter 5.4. Pedro also uses semicolons to link related sentences, and uses adverbials, like *primarily*, *second* [form Pedro's], and *lastly*, to focus his reader on the flow of sentences and ideas, one from the other. Elsewhere in his text, Pedro uses linking devices as well to direct his readers. Some of these explicit tools are less than successful, as seen in the discussion above with his use of *because*. However, unlike Che, Pedro does use more formal terms, like *therefore* (P2.7) and *however* (P3.2 & P5.10), to introduce sentences with explicit signals to the reader of the relationship between ideas. As with his use of *because*, Pedro does sometimes insert more informal, oral signaling devices, as in the following sentences:

> P5.12 **The way I see it**, he leaves a legacy to the world that simply says, "The love that a father has for a son it cannot be measure."

> P7.2 **Sure** she is right to say that art triggers certain emotions of human beings, but it also depends on the level of maturity of the individual.

The fronted clause in P5.12 is an oral statement of opinion, not found in academic discourse. The evaluative *sure* in P7.2 similarly indicates agreement with the author, but is usually a conversational form of agreement. In other places in the introduction, Pedro's lexis is also fairly colloquial, using terms like *no one else than* to introduce Botero to the reader (P1.5) or the non-specific *things* (P1.8); later on in the text, Pedro describes the car accident which killed Botero's son by talking about a truck *ramming* Botero's car (P5.3), a fairly colloquial phrase. Pedro seems then on a different place on the continuum of writing development than Che in regards to his attempts at formal writing conventions.

Organizationally, Pedro writes an introductory paragraph, supporting body paragraphs and a conclusion. In his introduction above, we can see that he makes general statements about art and life and attempts to tie it in to a thesis about his choice of Botero's painting. He explicitly lists three reasons to talk about this painting, leaving the reader to assume that those are the points he will make in his text, and in fact his text does follow that structure. Pedro is trying in his introduction to follow the generic essay introduction model of stating a thesis and the methods the writer will use to develop the thesis in the text. The problem here is that Pedro falls short of the goal and does not create a thesis statement which will encompass the entire purpose of his essay or address the assignment requirements; he does not refer to varying views of art or offer any discussion of researched works, which were part of the assignment, and he sets himself up in the introduction as the expert on the definition of art as opposed to the published sources he was assigned to consider. Therefore, when he discusses sources in his text, the reader is not clear about their purpose or role in his discussion. His body paragraphs reflect a similar organizational pattern to Che's; first there are narrative paragraphs about Botero's life and influence, followed by a paragraph (paragraph 6) discussing Allison's definition of art. There is no real transition to this paragraph nor is there

a discussion of how it relates to the previous discussion of Botero. Paragraph 7 concludes the essay, not by summarizing his previous discussion, but with musings on more of Allison's statements. Pedro in effect introduces new topics in the final paragraph, including Allison's hard life and bitter attitude and the influence of nature on artists, rather than summing up his discussion.

There are features of Pedro's essay which appear hard to evaluate in terms of deliberate manifestations of textual positioning. Sometimes his grammatical issues obscure some of what he is trying to do. For example, his use of prepositional and idiomatic phrases is sometimes unsuccessful, but it is not always clear if that is because of his aural learning or simple typos. For example, in P4.4, he begins the sentence with the phrase "*As a young age*..." Does he mean *at a young age* or *as a young man*, but has misused the expression, or has he simply typed incorrectly? In P4.8, there is a similar question with the phrase, "*In most case*...", where the plural marker is missing. There are also questions concerning his formatting, which could indicate either formatting errors or particular intentions regarding his textual voice. Paragraph 3, for example, ends with a very long quotation. He has not used appropriate formatting for inserting a long quotation into a text, nor has he followed the quotation with any discussion to integrate its purpose into his essay; both of these issues would have been discussed in class and brought to his attention if the quote had appeared in earlier drafts of his essay. Pedro is also inconsistent with his paragraphing. He will sometimes indent paragraphs and sometimes skip a space between paragraphs. Because the decision to include case studies into this module and the choice of essays to include in this section came after the written class assignment, I have not had the opportunity for a follow-up interview with Pedro to assess the deliberate nature of any of these features.

As already suggested, Noel's essay is the one most permeated with the *academic literacy* voice. He does not include first person experience or narrative, and his lexis is imbued with *academic* phraseology (See Section 7.3.1). His sentences vary is length and style, and he uses embedded clauses to link concepts. Noel's opening paragraph illustrates many of these features:

> [N1] (1)An average person in our modern day and age looks at a painting and considers it to be art because it has been proclaimed to be art by professionals like artists and art critics. (2)The thought that maybe these professionals are wrong never crosses the individuals mind nor does he try to define the true meaning of art. (3)The true question at hand is what is the criterion for art in this modern day and age? (4)Two theories that derive from this question base their answers on the historical precedent of previous art and the aesthetics that art provides. (5)The three authors that provide these theories are Noel Carroll, Jerrold Levinson, and Jeanette Winterson. (6)Their ideas may be similar or contradictory but their theories are uniquely different in their own way.

Noel employs the categorical present tense to set up his argument, and formal lexis such as *historical precedent* and *aesthetics*. He uses subordinate conjunctions, coordinating conjunctions, and relative clauses more or less correctly (N1.5 refers to authors with the relative pronoun *that* rather than *who*, which might mark it as an error for prescriptivists). Though his final sentence in this paragraph in unclear and contradictory, overall his voice is formal. Even the linking devices he uses in the body of his text reflect a more academic stylistic:

> N2.5 **Thus,** Carroll explains, in detail, the definition of art and the standards to use.
>
> N4.11 **Thus** this theory is not as reliable as that of Carroll and Levinson's theories.
>
> N5.4 **While,** on the contrary, Winterson asserts that art is based on the aesthetics of art.

Thus and *while* inform the reader of the logical link from the previous sentences. Noel's insertion of *on the contrary* in N5.4 further advises the reader of the kind of connection he

wants them to make between concepts. Though overall Noel's essay has an academic tone, it is not without some indications of novice writing, beyond misinterpretation of source information and contradictory statements; there are minor spelling and agreement errors as well as sentence fragments and problems of preposition usage: "*While, the aesthetics that Winterson debates about may vary from person to person making it very hard to get a final declaration*" (N5.8).

For some composition instructors, Noel might represent their dream student. When we examine his essay organizationally, we find the traditional five-paragraph essay, a structure I did not teach in my class; therefore Noel came to my class with this knowledge. His introduction attracts the reader with the question about art; he then introduces the ideas of contrasting theories and the research he will discuss. Though he contradicts himself in the final sentence of his introduction, he has essentially followed the traditional model and informed the readers about what they can expect to read in the body of his essay. Each of his three body paragraphs is dedicated to explaining the position of one of his three resources. He transitions from paragraph to paragraph clearly, quotes appropriately, and even uses proper formatting for the long quotation which appears in paragraph 2. He always rephrases his source material and ties each one to the previous. Finally in his closing paragraph, he reinterprets what he has already argued, sums up his argument, and closes with a restatement of the question with which he started. Clearly, Noel has learned the traditional model of academic writing and is able to express that voice via his textual choices.

7.5.2 Summary of Textual Positioning in Individual Essays

Examination of the individual essays for textual positioning in light of corpus results demonstrates clearly the different levels of writing ability of each student. Each uses linking devices in different ways, exhibits varying levels of formality in his essay, and conforms to a

different degree to the conventions of academic report writing. Che's essay, it could be argued, is not an academic research report, as is exhibited by his lack of source material, his informality of style, his interaction with the reader through questions. On the other hand, Noel produced the stereotypical five-paragraph essay with a paragraph dedicated to each of his three sources and uses lexis from his readings as best he can. Each of the three students positions himself textually in a different way, representing differing levels of abilities and different views of what constitutes and academic research report.

7.6 Summary and Conclusions

The advantage to looking closely at individual essays is that we can consider both the features and trends which marked the G1.5 students as distinct from the ESL and NS student writers, but also to look at individual features in order to determine the continuum on which these writers move from beginning novice to more advanced writers. Important conclusions drawn from this case study chapter include the realization that voice representation is both simultaneous and polyphonic, that generalizations from the corpus data are relevant and informative, and that there are significant differences among the voice-types projected based on the G1.5 learners' place on the writing continuum. Not only can this information help instructors become aware of generalizations among these writers, but recognizing self-representation among student writers can inform a writing pedagogy which would help draw attention to the power of the personal and cultural identity students are projecting in their texts.

7.6.1 Summary of Case Studies

Examination of the three essays demonstrated the simultaneous nature of positioning; that is, that many features, which could be considered one type of positioning, can also

represent features of another type. For example, use of first person pronouns is indicative of the interpersonal role the writer plays in regards to readers; however, the use of first person pronouns can also be considered an element of ideational positioning when the writer uses first person to claim expertise or a basis for knowledge. Similarly, where conjunctions were used as linking devices to construct textual positioning, they often also represented a kind on interpersonal positioning. Analysis also indicated that the students can also project many voice types in a single text. Pedro's essay, for example, clearly indicated a personal, informal voice position. However, at the same time, he was attempting a more formal academic voice type, which comes through in some of his features. Though his essay included many grammatical and organizational problems, his development as a writer can be observed by the juxtaposition of several of these disparate elements. Almost like a snapshot, his essay can be considered a moment of writing development. This also suggests that the continuum of writing development is not necessarily a straight line, with single features being learned one at a time, but as complex and multi-faceted as is developing one's identity.

Analysis of the three essays also demonstrated that the corpus data does provide a fairly accurate generalization of the distinct features exhibited in G1.5 writing. Many of the features described in previous chapters did in fact appear in one or more of the sample essays. However, qualitative differences in feature use, for example, first person pronouns, can only be understood through examination of individual texts. In addition, examination of individual texts allows for other features, not identified as salient in the corpus data, but perhaps relevant to the individual student's development, to be identified and discussed. More importantly, while the corpus approach encourages us to look at generalizations, individual examination of texts demonstrates how different each student is in his/her ability to self-represent, to articulate critical thinking skills and complicated concepts, and to

produce academic writing. Just as we need to remind ourselves that the corpus only highlights for us those areas of significant difference and not all the possible similarities, we must also remember that these students are individuals with varying degrees of skill and ability and that a list of features does not adequately predict what we might find in their essays.

7.6.2 Conclusions

Comparing the corpus results to individual essays demonstrates that there is more to consider regarding students' acquiring academic writing skills than implicit learning of conventions. First, we must consider the variables that might affect each student's situation. Both Che and Pedro had been in the U.S. for approximately the same amount of time and both are studying similar subject areas and both have plans for postgraduate education. However, Che's international background and years of English-language schooling provided him with more facility of oral elements of English. This does not necessarily make him a better academic writer, but he had different language issues than did Pedro who had no formal English classes until arriving in the U.S. only five years before starting university. While Pedro seemed to have a sense of an academic vocabulary, his grammar still prevents him from fluidity of writing or clearly articulating his ideas. Noel, having had all his schooling in the U.S., certainly demonstrated a more traditional, typical academic writing style, while still having some linguistic imperfections. The variables affecting each student's writing abilities are a more complicated matter than can be dealt with within the scope of this Module; however, having some sense of a writer's background and previous learning may be relevant to expanding a critical awareness of his/her needs for developmental improvement.

Another significant question regarding acquiring academic writing skills which this analysis raises is the question of what we mean by academic writing proficiency. While

Noel's essay demonstrates many of the qualities one associates with *good* academic writing, it lacks the personal passion and voice that one reads in both Che's and Pedro's essays. Consider the following sentences from Che's essay:

> [C6]. (2) It produces my stomach to twist and my head to spin with ideas and memories not only of my life but his. (3) When I see his image I feel hurt, heartbroken even.

Che's evocative language and personal response is hard not to respond to and suggests a personal involvement with his topic not seen in Noel's essay. Chapter 2.2.2 referenced literature on the current political debate surrounding composition in university classes. While scholars recognize that many students, and we can argue here particularly G1.5 students, have been marginalized and their language considered *transitional*, there is still an assumption that students will implicitly acquire a plethora of academic conventions to which their writing must adhere. However, in considering these distinct features of G1.5 writing, many of which have not historically been valued in academic writing, we must become aware of the power of these culturally-shaped voice types and consider a way to integrate their strengths into a writing pedagogy which would not necessarily require them to conform totally to dominant conventions but would not accommodate them uncritically.

CHAPTER 8:
CONCLUSIONS & IMPLICATIONS

"…people from different ethnicities, cultures, and social classes can still paint the same kind of picture. We are given colors, utensils, and an imagination." (esl0637rp)

8.1 Conclusions

In Module I, I attempted to describe and define a population of students labeled as G1.5 in the literature because of their *in-between* status; in Module II, I used corpus data to identify some key lexico-grammatical behaviors of these students relating to issues of identity in writing. In this Module, my goal has been to expand this research in order to present a more complete picture of G1.5 students' discoursal selves. In order to do this, I have examined both quantitative and qualitative data comparing these students to their ESL and NS counterparts, as well as comparing individual G1.5 student essays against essays written by other G1.5 peers. While essays from the three student groups shared many features, the distinct differences exhibited by the G1.5 writers were best considered in terms of *voice types*, where writing is considered a social act which locates the participants socially, culturally and historically. In addition, mapping features of *voice* onto Halliday's (2004) three macrofunctions of language allowed for an analysis of semantic and lexico-grammatical features in terms of ideational, interpersonal, and textual positioning and thus convey a portrait of the G1.5 students' self-representation in writing as distinct from other student writers.

In Chapter 1, the questions which drove this research were introduced. I would like to review the conclusions of the research here by summing up answers to these questions:

1). What do these students perceive as necessary for *good* writing? How is their writing perceived/evaluated by instructors across disciplines?

Analysis of student and instructor essay evaluation (Chapter 2) and individual essay organization patterns (Chapter 7) indicate that there are disparities between what/how instructors evaluate appropriate writing and how students, in general, and G1.5 students in particular, perceive writing assignments and assessment criteria. In general, G1.5 students choose to write about topics with which they connect experientially, citing personal experience as source and authority. Feelings and beliefs are often included in their writing and they consider a piece of writing *good* if they can agree with its content. They were less concerned about grammar and language issues, suggesting that NS do not use English *perfectly*. ESL and NS students, by contrast, are less personal in their writing topics and look to the assignment criteria to determine the appropriateness of the essay. There also appears to be inconsistency in terms of instructor teaching and evaluation which can often lead to confusing messages being sent to students.

2). What semantic and lexico-grammatical features appeared in a corpus study to distinguish G1.5 student writers from ESL and NS students? What patterns and trends do they indicate among G1.5 writers? How does a qualitative analysis of their use of these features compare/contrast to ESL and NS student writers?

- G1.5 semantic and topic choices are distinct and often reflect their experiences as immigrants and refugees. Semantic categories such as 'Kinship', 'Religion', 'Difficulty', 'Alive' (see Chapter 4) are frequent and represent salient differences from topic choices of ESL or NS student groups.

- G1.5 students tend to write in a more narrative style, including personal examples and past tense verbs, than NS or ESL students.

- G1.5 students use human reference more so than the ESL or NS students, employing more pronouns, personal and other examples, and reference to authors more frequently than either NS or ESL student writers.

- G1.5 students' writing style is less formal, closer to conversational English than that of NS or ESL students, and is often represented in their choice of lexis, use of structures such as subordinate conjunctions and exemplification. However, nonacademic elements, such as overuse of first person singular pronoun and second person pronouns, appeared more frequently in NS essays, suggesting that a lack of academic conventions in writing is not exclusive to the G1.5 students.

- G1.5 students' writing includes fewer stylistic elements of either the writing prompt or readings to which they are responding than either NS or ESL students. They tend not to vary their rhetorical strategies.

- G1.5 students, for the most part, fail to use academic conventions in their writing, though, as seen in the examination of individual essays in Chapter 7, there seems to be a continuum of development of writing skills; some students have more successfully integrated some elements of academic writing than others at this stage (first year of university) of their education.

3). How do the linguistic features G1.5 choose point toward their self-representation in their writing? How does this differ from ESL and NS students?

Analysis of self-representation in text includes writer positioning towards various aspects of their tasks:

- G.15 students self-represent via *ideational positioning* by choosing to include lived experience and first person reference as a knowledge base. The tendency to refer to specific human referents, exemplification and narration of past events indicates their view of knowledge-making. In general, G1.5 student might be said to be more engaged with their writing assignments than either the ESL or NS student groups since their choice of topics, semantic focus, and personal examples are all more representative of their *voice* than the less personal writing of either ESL or NS students.

- G1.5 student self-represent via *interpersonal positioning* with their uses of personal pronouns, their evaluative language, their use of questions and oral elements in written documents. They exhibit an awareness of audience and use grammatical features, such as conjunctions and direct address, to guide their readers through their thought processes; they also exhibit a sense of surety of their positions.

- G1.5 students self-represent via *textual positioning* through the level of (in)formality of their lexis, the linking devices they choose, and the organizational patterns of their texts. These students do not alter their rhetorical patterns based on the rhetorical outcomes of an assignment. Rather, in general, their writing does not look like academic discourse but like a more informal genre. While some formal elements appear in some essays, developmentally these students seem to be less aware of academic conventions when they write.

4). Who, then, are the G1.5 writers within the academic community? How do they see themselves? How does this manifest in their writing? What conclusions can we draw from an analysis of their writing?

Probably the most important question of all, G1.5 students represent young people of varying ages, varying L1s, varying socio-economic, religious, and political backgrounds. They are neither ESL nor NS students, though their needs, concerns, and academic writing share many characteristics with both groups. They are young people looking for a voice and looking to define their own voice within a system that historically has not been designed to accommodate the *other* either socially or academically.

8.2 Limitations of Study

This study has been an attempt at describing the salient linguistic differences among G1.5 students and their ESL and NS counterparts, and only begins to analyze the linguistic behaviors of this complex group of young people. While it does provide some specific linguistic data on the G1.5 students, the investigation does have limitations. One such limitation is the size of the corpora; given the number of available texts with which to create the three corpora, results would be hard to generalize over a broader population. In addition, accessibility of students to self-identify as G1.5 students and the availability of a small population of ESL international students resulted in those two corpora being significantly smaller than the NS student writings. Though having a larger control group is not problematic in itself, having more data from both G1.5 and ESL students would have been preferable and perhaps more revealing in terms of results. Another limitation was the small number of participants for the evaluation and assessment sub-study (Chapter 2); having input from a larger cross-section of students and instructors would have allowed me to make generalizations about the perception of successful college writing, consistency of evaluation, and attitudes towards NS and NNS writers.

In addition, this research was done in one university in one part of the U.S. and therefore is not necessarily representative of G1.5 student writing, or other undergraduate writing, from other parts of the U.S. Creating a G1.5 corpus is problematic, due to issues of

self-selection, the variety of L1s and their possible influence, the varying length of time students spend in U.S. pre-university schools and the education they receive, the level of L1 literacy they may/may not have, and more. I believe it is for these reasons that more detailed linguistic analysis on these students has not previously been completed by other researchers. However, researchers at the University of Michigan (under the direction of Ute Römer) and Portland State University (under the direction of Susan Conrad) are working on creating large G1.5 corpora which would generate a more comprehensive database of G1.5 student work. At the University of Michigan, researchers are approaching the problem of variable influence in G1.5 student writing by building their corpus from Korean and Chinese L1 speakers only. Researchers at Portland State University are trying to create a comprehensive G1.5 corpus, tagging each document for various variables like L1 and more, in order to be able to extract different documents in the corpus based on research questions. My G1.5 corpus has, in fact, has been sent to Susan Conrad to become part of a multi-university G1.5 corpus housed at Portland State University and available for more thorough study and evaluation.

In the same vein, as the sole instructor for the G1.5 and ESL students, and one of the NS classes, I am both teacher and researcher. Because the data comes from classes taught by a single instructor, there is a lack of variety of teaching methods, types, and assignments which also might affect the data results. One concern, for example, is raised regarding the data which indicates that G1.5 students mark human reference more frequently than other students. As their instructor, I stressed repeatedly that students must cite sources within their texts; I know this is one of my teaching quirks. This could produce the result of having an overabundance of references in their texts compared to the NS students, since I do not know if my partnered colleagues are as focused on this issue as I am. However, as the ESL students were in the same classes as the G1.5 students and therefore had exactly the same instruction, the G1.5 results cannot be dismissed solely as a teaching aberration.

Finally, I have been unable to fully study issues outside the scope of this research, such as the influence of various affective variables on written language production or the value of revision for improved academic writing. Despite the flaws and limitations, I have made attempts to verify my results by triangulating my methods, using corpus data, case studies, and interviews and questionnaires. In this way, I have hoped to counter the limitations of the study and add valuable data and insight not previously seen in the research community. In this regard, this study may be regarded as a stepping stone in the search for better understanding of G1.5 student writing.

8.3 Implications for Further Research

Further research is needed in order to identify the role of various L1s on the acquisition process of G1.5 students versus ESL students with the same L1. Variables such as socio-economic status, age, gender, and more can all also be considered topics for further research. Closer examination of the similarities of NS student writers and G1.5 student writers with many years in U.S. schools could reveal relevant data regarding implicit versus explicit learning of writing conventions, and the continuum of language development represented by students of various skill levels. Examining draft copies of essays against final copies could reveal relevant information on the process of revision and writing acquisition. An expanded study focusing only on assessment and evaluation is needed to determine what students and instructors value in writing, what students attempt to produce in writing, and how instructor inconsistency affects student output. I have only scratched the surface of the work that needs to be done and, in some ways, am left with more questions than answers.

8.4 Implications for Teaching

As the G1.5 population grows at university, several facts emerge: G1.5 students are appearing more and more in mainstream classes, their needs are not the same as those of ESL

students, effective instructional methods to help them improve are not the same as proven methods for ESL or for NS students, and our instructors are not prepared or trained to work with these students effectively. At our campus and at others across the U.S., people have tried to put together *ESL* programs and funnel G1.5 students into ESL classes. This is not working for the G1.5 students, giving ESL students less attention on the issues with which they need help, and ignoring the majority of G1.5 students who are enrolled in mainstream and remedial classes. What I have learned from working with G1.5 students, and find particularly challenging as an instructor, is that what is needed is a method for helping these students master traditional academic discourse and performing rigorous intellectual work, while leaving room for them to use language in their unique way as a tool in the development of personal identities and affiliations. Finding models, not of professional writing (which seems an unreachable goal to them), but of successful student writing for them to analyze in terms of discourse features has been a first step in revising my teaching approach to one of more explicit and demonstrative methodologies. In addition, giving the students the opportunity and freedom to experiment with their discourses has called for a more critical pedagogy on my part where my students and I both question authority and language use. The realization that teaching is a political act was a revelation and an opportunity to understand better the role G1.5 students play in the academic community of which they are a growing and vibrant sector.

Based on this study, a number of implications for writing pedagogy can be made. Examination of G.15 student writing has revealed that they fall neither within the realm of NS or traditional ESL writing instruction. G1.5 students often produce writing much more like NS students than ESL students, and they have not had the kind of EAP/EFL classes that ESL students come to our universities having studied; therefore traditional ESL instruction is not appropriate for them. However, they often do not seem to have acquired an implicit

awareness of stylistic and rhetorical components of reading and writing in the academy, which we expect of our NS students. Therefore, traditional NS composition classes do not address the needs of these students either. More explicit instruction of rhetorical patterns and of differences between spoken and written dialects could help students become aware of making different choices in their writing. In addition, instructional techniques which help to make students aware of the identity they project in their writing can then give them a choice about self-presentation in their texts.

Moreover, the debate within our own institutions regarding composition theory and evaluation of *proficient* or *good* writing suggests that, while we try to raise the critical awareness of these students about control of personal and cultural identity projected in their writing, we also need to raise critical awareness among ourselves as instructors of those learning to write in a second (or other) language about the risks of perpetuating dominant, yet undefined, conventions. Recognition of "hybrid discourses" (Bizzell 1999, Hebb 2000, Ivanič 1998) into our repertoire of acceptable writing, for example, can enrich our own language and offer community to those traditionally labeled *outsiders*. While making students aware of the ways in which they represent themselves in writing, we might also make them aware of the alternative voices that are available to them, voices which hopefully can be culturally shaped and inclusive without requiring complete conformity and colonization.

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APPENDIX A:

INFORMED CONSENT FORMS

Appendix A.1: Informed Consent Form for Student Essay Collection

Appendix A.2: Informed Consent Form for Participants in Assessment Study

Appendix A.1:
Informed Consent Form for Student Essay Collection

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH
The Pennsylvania State University

Title of Project: A Study of Learner Differences: Writing Variation among ESL Students: 1.5 generation students vs. international students in US universities (IRB #20098)

Principal Investigator: Mary Connerty, Lecturer (and PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics, Birmingham)
144 Kochel Bldg
Penn State Erie, The Behrend College
Erie, PA 16563

Advisor: Dr. Susan Hunston
CELS
University of Birmingham
Edgbaston
Birmingham B15 2TT
United Kingdom

9. **Purpose of the Study:** As part of a requirement to complete my PhD, I am conducting research. The purpose of this research is to examine the essay writing of ESL students and determine if there are differences in language and discourse acquisition between students who have been in the US for some time and have spent time in US schools versus international students who are in the US only for college. These essays will be compared to a control group of native speakers of English.

10. **Procedures to be followed:** You will be asked to answer a brief survey and submit your essays written for ESL 015, ENGL 015, or ENGL 30 via email or computer disk.

11. **Discomforts and Risks:** Though a participant might feel some discomfort knowing that someone other than his/her instructor is reading his/her essays, I would like to assure the participant that all information will be confidential and no names will appear in any written analysis of the data. Raw data will be seen only by the researcher, Mary Connerty, and Dr. Susan Hunston.

    There are no risks in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life.

12. **Benefits:** This research hopefully will provide linguists and teachers of writing with clearer information about how different groups of students acquire language, utilize discourse elements, and understand reading and writing assignments. The research will also hopefully result in giving insight into developing better and more efficient learning tools and materials for ESL students.

    While the study is not designed to provide participants with any direct benefits, you might learn more about your writing and reading process by participating in this study. Awareness of your own process might also provide you with a better understanding of how you personally have learned, are continuing to learn, and improve your mastery of English.

13. **Duration/Time:** The survey will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. The essays you will submit in electronic format are the same essays you will be writing as class assignments; therefore no additional time

is required for preparing the essays; the only additional time required would be the time it takes to email a copy of your essay or to drop it into an ANGEL dropbox.

14. **Statement of Confidentiality:** Only the person in charge and her academic advisor will know your identity. The data will be stored and secured at 144Kochel Building in a password protected electronic file and a locked file cabinet. However, since the study does make use of email, your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The following may review and copy records related to this research: The Office of Human Research Protections in the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; The Penn State University Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB); The Penn State University Office for Research Protections (ORP). In the event of a publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared.

15. **Right to Ask Questions:** You can ask questions about this research. Please contact Mary Connerty with questions, complaints or concerns about the research. You can also call this number if you feel this study has harmed you. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact The Pennsylvania State University's Office for Research Protections at (814) 865-1775.

16. **Compensation:** There will be no compensation for participation in this research.

17. **Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. Participation or non-participation in the study will have no effect on grades or status with your instructor or the university.

You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to take part in this research study. If you agree to take part in this research study and the information outlined above, please sign your name and indicate the date below.

You will be given a copy of this signed and dated consent form for your records.

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

_____ _____

Person Obtaining Consent Date

Appendix A.2:
Informed Consent Form for Participants in Assessment Study

ORP USE ONLY: IRB# 20098 Doc.#2
The Pennsylvania State University
Office for Research Protections
Approval Date: 02/19/07 T. Kahler
Expiration Date: 01/22/08 T. Kahler
Social Science Institutional Review Board

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH
The Pennsylvania State University

Title of Project: A Study of Learner Differences: Writing Variation among ESL Students: 1.5 generation students vs. international students in US universities (IRB #20098)

Principal Investigator: Mary Connerty, Lecturer (and PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics, Birmingham)
144 Kochel Bldg
Penn State Erie, The Behrend College
Erie, PA 16563

Advisor: Dr. Susan Hunston
CELS
University of Birmingham
Edgbaston
Birmingham B15 2TT
United Kingdom

18. **Purpose of the Study:** As an addendum to the PhD research I am conducting (please see IRB#20098, Doc. #1), I am proposing an additional element which requires that I work with approximately five instructors and five students in order to obtain further information about student writing assessment, elements of language, and rhetorical devices in writing.

19. **Procedures to be followed:**
    A. Identified instructor and student participants will be given three essays to read and evaluate.
    B. Instructor participants will be asked to read the essays and (a) grade each one on a scale of one to three (good, fair, poor) and (b) make notes to explain in each case why they had given a particular grade.
    C. Student participants will be asked, using the same scale as above, to grade each paper twice: (a) first as they would judge the essay, and (b) again as they think an instructor would assess it. Then students will be asked to (c) make notes explaining their reasoning for both grades.
    D. Unstructured interviews will be conducted where interviewees will be asked to explain the assigned grades, and to reveal considerations that had guided their decisions. Instructors will also be asked to identify those features of the essays by category which they feel either identifies the student from a particular group or exhibits specific rhetorical elements. By previous arrangement, interviews will be recorded.

20. **Recording Procedures**: With permission, interviews will be recorded in order to retain a record of comments. Recordings will be accessed only by the researcher and her academic advisor. Any information from the recordings (quotes, comments) used in the writing up of the dissertation will be done so without identifying the speaker by name or other identifying features other than whether the person is a student or instructor. Recordings will be placed in a locked cabinet in Kochel 144 and will be destroyed no later than five years from the recording date.

21. **Statement of Confidentiality:** Only the person in charge and her academic advisor will know your identity. The data will be stored and secured at 144Kochel Building in a locked file cabinet. However, since the study does make use of email, your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by

the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The following may review and copy records related to this research: The Office of Human Research Protections in the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; The Penn State University Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB); The Penn State University Office for Research Protections (ORP). In the event of a publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared.

22. **Discomforts and Risks:** Though a participant might feel some discomfort knowing that his/her comments are being recorded, I would like to assure the participant that all information will be confidential and no names will appear in any written analysis of the data. Raw data will be seen only by the researcher, Mary Connerty, and Dr. Susan Hunston.

    There are no risks in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life.

23. **Benefits:** This research hopefully will provide linguists and teachers of writing with clearer information about how different groups of students acquire language, utilize discourse elements, and understand reading and writing assignments. The research will also hopefully result in giving insight into developing better and more efficient learning tools and materials for ESL students.

    While the study is not designed to provide participants with any direct benefits, one might learn more about the writing and assessment process by participating in this study. Awareness of one's own process might also provide a better understanding of how one personally has learned, is continuing to learn, and improve one's mastery of English, or of how one evaluates student writing.

24. **Duration/Time:** Reading and commenting on the essays will take about 30-60 minutes to complete. The interview portion of the study should also take about 30-60 minutes.

25. **Right to Ask Questions:** You can ask questions about this research. Please contact Mary Connerty with questions, complaints or concerns about the research. You can also call this number if you feel this study has harmed you. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact The Pennsylvania State University's Office for Research Protections at (814) 865-1775.

26. **Compensation:** There will be no compensation for participation in this research.

27. **Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. Participation or non-participation in the study will have no effect on grades or status with your instructor or the university.

You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to take part in this research study. If you agree to take part in this research study and the information outlined above, please sign your name and indicate the date below.

If you agree to allow your recorded comments to be quoted in the writing up of the research, without information identifying the specific speaker, please indicate so here:

_____ My recorded comments CAN be quoted

_____ My recorded comments can NOT be quoted.

You will be given a copy of this signed and dated consent form for your records.

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

_____ _____

Person Obtaining Consent Date

APPENDIX B:

ASSESSMENT STUDY DOCUMENTS

Files Codes:
Each transcribed file in the interview data has a four character code made up of the following parts:

c. The first three character identify the interviewee type:
   i. ICO = Instructor, composition
   ii. ICS = Instructor, composition and subject area
   iii. ISA = Instructor, subject area
   iv. GEN = Generation 1.5 student
   v. ESL = International/ESL student
   vi. NSS = Native speaker student

d. A number identifying members of the core groups
   i. 1 = Instructor/Student # 1
   ii. 2 = Instructor/Student # 2

Thus (ISA1) indicates subject area instructor #1 and (GEN1) would indicate G1.5 student #1.

Appendix B.1: Instructions for Students

TO: My Students
FROM: Mary Connerty
DATE: March 3, 2007

SUBJECT: Research Assistance

Thank you so much for agreeing to help with my research project. The tasks I am asking you to perform should take up less than an hour of your time in total, but will provide me with invaluable information, which I hope will be able to help students in future.

First, I am going to ask you to sign a consent form, which simply says that you have volunteered to help me. I will give you a copy to this form to keep for your files.

Next, I have attached here a copy of an essay assignment from ESL 015/ENGL 015 and three essays written by students in response to this assignment. Please do the following:

1. Please read the assignment and all three essays.
2. For each essay, please indicate if you think the assignment is Good – Fair – or Poor. This study is not comparative; that is, you don't have to rank the essays. If you think they are all excellent or all fair, that's ok. Judge each one individually.
3. Next, please give each essay the assessment you think an instructor would give it – Good, Fair, or Poor. The evaluation might be the same as you gave each one or not, and that is fine.
4. Finally, simply make some notes on each essay about why you gave it the 'grade' you did and why you think the instructor would grade it as you guessed s/he would.

After spring break, I would like to make an appointment to meet with you for about 15 minutes and talk about your assessments of the essays. I would like to tape the interviews so that I don't miss or forget any information.

Thank you again for your help. I could not do this research without your help.

Appendix B.2: Instructions for Instructors

TO: Colleagues
FROM: Mary Connerty
DATE: March 3, 2007

SUBJECT: Research Assistance

Thank you so much for agreeing to help with my research project. The tasks I am asking you to perform should take up less than an hour of your time in total, but will provide me with invaluable information, which I hope will be able to help students in future.

First, I am going to ask you to sign a consent form, which simply says that you have volunteered to help me. I will give you a copy to this form to keep for your files.

Next, I have attached here a copy of an essay assignment from ESL 015/ENGL 015 and three essays written by students in response to this assignment. Please do the following:

1. Please read the assignment and all three essays.
2. For each essay, please indicate if you think the assignment is Good – Fair – or Poor. This study is not comparative; that is, you don't have to rank the essays. If you think they are all excellent or all fair, that's ok. Judge each one individually.
3. Finally, simply make some notes on each essay about why you gave it the 'grade' you did.

After spring break, I would like to make an appointment to meet with you for about 15 minutes and talk about your assessments of the essays. I would like to tape the interviews so that I don't miss or forget any information.

Thank you again for your help. I could not do this research without your help.

Appendix B.3: 'Hyacinth' Essay

The Use of Imagination in Art

Great art is based on ideas instead of facts. It tries to show its audience a truth that may not be seen directly. "We think we live in a world of sense-experience and what we can touch and feel, see and hear, is the sum of our reality." (Winterson 599) Winterson believes that our society as a whole bases its opinions on what is proved fact by our senses. However, to her, art is supposed to be based on feelings and thoughts, and open the mind to other possibilities.

To say that art is like religion is a great way of proving just how much an artist has to work with. "To accept God was to accept Otherness, and while this did not make the life of the artist any easier, a general agreement that there is more around us than the mundane allows the artist a greater license and a greater authority than he or she can expect in a society that recognizes nothing but itself." (Winterson 599) The first time I read this passage it really made me think about religion as an idea. So many of us have our beliefs based on what we do not experience ourselves. None of us can use our senses to prove that religion is solid fact. Yet Winterson describes that our society looks only to the noticeable truth. Our world looks to facts because they are too afraid of what they may find if they look beyond everything into a life of ideas. The artist can achieve so much more with this whole sense of art as n idea because it opens up the opportunities of what they would want to portray. If art was limited to only the physical world, imagine the type of things we would be missing out on.

Believing that art is better off as an idea relates to Winterson's description of the role of imagination. "The honest currency of art is the honest currency of the imagination." (Winterson 598) I think it is important to look at just what imagination is thought to be. Imagination is described as the faculty of forming mental images of concepts of what is not actually present to the senses. Again, this all ties back to Winterson's belief that art should go beyond the physical world with what the senses perceive. One must rely on their imagination in order to see passed the world of facts. When I think about imagination, I think back to myself as a child and the type of games I used to play. One game that comes to mind is the way I used to take cardboard boxes and pretend I was driving a race car. It was through my imagination that I could come up with this whole idea of a box becoming something completely different. If I hadn't had my imagination, I wouldn't have been able to look passed what was actually there. There is no focus on the senses and physical world. We can focus on the box as a form of art, and me as a viewer. Maybe this is a way to show that my perception as a viewer is more

important than that of the artist. Maybe this is what Winterson is trying to convey to her readers. We must convert back to a child like state of mind in order for us to see passed our so called reality to examine what else could possibly be there. "Imagination's coin, the infinitely flexible metal of the Muse, metal of the mood, in rounded structure offer new universes, primary worlds, that substantially confront the pretences of notional life." (Winterson 598)

I noticed a form of imagination, although not directly stated, in Dorothy Allison's Essay. When Allison looked at a black and white photograph, she imagined an entire story to go along with it. She didn't just use her senses to view what was only there. In her own way, she looked beyond the frame of the window and saw possibilities. I like to think that art should force one to have mental images and have their own little story around that subject. I can listen to an amazing song and picture exactly what I believe the artist is trying to say. It's empowering, the fact that art allows you to see something that wouldn't have originally been there.

Winterson disapproves of many forms of art which have renounced the visionary or imaginative project. However, I feel that there should be more of a focus on that imaginative capacity of the viewer rather than the artist. I agree with Winterson in the way that imagination opens up the opportunities, but the viewer's imagination is most important. I believe the whole purpose of an artist is to provoke something in its audience. Therefore, the viewer's imaginations are what need to be focused on.

"Art is visionary; it sees beyond the view from the window, even though the window is its frame." (Winterson 599) Now I have to admit, the first time I read Winterson's essay, this quote meant nothing to me. However, I tutor a student involved in the English as a Second Language program who is also working on this author and he opened my eyes. He was having difficulty understanding exactly what the author was trying to represent. The he turned to the window of the library and stared. It was like something inside of him clicked and he suddenly understood it. He became very enthusiastic as he described to me what he saw. He described to me that when we look out of a window, we notice an image but fail to realize that there is more there then is originally seen. After that session, I took a lot from Winterson and felt that her quote didn't only describe art but also people. We judge people like we judge art. Even though we see one thing, there are endless possibilities of what could actually be there. What comes to mind for me is the quote, "don't judge a book by its cover." Maybe we need to take the time and examine art for everything it's trying to do. "Art is not documentary. It may incidentally serve that function in its own way but its true effort is to open us up to dimensions of the spirit that lie smothered under the weight of living." (Winterson 600) Instead of relying on first impressions and facts, we should take the time to envision other ideas and what is beyond initial sight.

"We have to admit that the arts stimulate and satisfy a part of our nature that would otherwise be left untouched and that the emotions art arouses in us are of a different order to those aroused by experience of any other kind." (Winterson 599) People may not necessarily do this because of what society shows to be acceptable and real. Our culture is one that fails to notice anything other than its materialistic values. Ideas and imagination can't come out because we are more focused on less important issues. When I look at this quote, I think about Allison's point that she brought up about how people don't focus on anything that's not deemed socially acceptable. The two authors agree that art needs to force the viewer to focus on something that they wouldn't have originally looked at. "The entire efforts of our government as directed through our society are efforts towards making more and more money. This favors the survival of the dullest. This favors those who prefer to live in a notional reality where goods are worth more than time and where things are more important than ideas." (Winterson 600) Again, we see more focus on ideas. I think that this also relates back to Allison's belief that art is supposed to stir up something in the viewer that they had never experienced before. Art should make the viewer look passed what is acceptable and force them to form their own opinion about reality.

The while idea of art as an idea and art as visionary opens up the chances that people will be able to notice beyond what is defined as real. We don't need solid facts or use of our senses to believe in things. When you really look at imagination and reality, they are both words that are indefinable. It's all about how each individual person relates those words to their life and defines them in their own way. It's not important about what the outside world believes. "The artist need not believe in God, but the artist does consider reality as multiple and complex. If the audience accepts this premise it is then possible to think about the work itself." (Winterson 600) For me, this quote completely sums up everything I got from Winterson's essay. There is no set rule on how things must be done when it comes to art. Therefore, we should be open to see the other sides of everything we view. Maybe if the rest viewed art the way Winterson describes, we would be able to see so much more.

Appendix B.4: 'Tulip' Essay

The Reality of Imagination

In *Imagination and Reality* by Jeannette Winterson, Ms. Winterson explains what the purpose the imagination is when it comes to reality. "It is the artist who must apprehend things fully, in their own right, communicating them not as symbols but as living realities with the power to move."(604) To understand such a concept, a person must first ask himself, "what is reality" and "what is imagination?"

Dorothy Allison in *This is Our World*, an essay about the truth of art, associates with Jeannette Winterson's views on reality. Ms. Allison describes the artist's role as being one who portrays truth. She says as the artist "It is our curse, and our prize, and for everyone who will tell us our work is mean or fearful or unreal, there is another who will embrace us and say with tears in their eyes how wonderful it is to finally feel as if someone has seen their truth and show it in some part as it should be known"(49). Everyone and everything hhas its own truth. This truth that Ms. Allison talks about relates to Ms. Winterson's reality.

Imagination is a human ability to create or interpret an idea or thought into one's own reality. This ability takes place in the mind of a person. An artist creates art by taking imagination and putting it on paper, portrait, wall, etc. Each and every person's imagination is eccentric which makes an artist's art eccentric. For example, if I asked a group of people, "what is your dream house", each one of them would give me a different description because every person has their own perception of reality.

Reality is, in Ms. Winterson's mind, things we can physically comprehend using our senses. She says, "We think we live in a world of sense – experience and what we can touch and feel, see and hear, is the sum of our reality."(599) If you sit and think about all that you can feel, hear, see, smell, and taste you will go crazy because everything can be applied to a sense. The reality of our world is vast and impossible to completely comprehend. It has no end and no beginning, so we have trouble understanding its full nature.

"Reality is continuous, multiple, simultaneous, complex, abundant and partly invisible. The imagination alone can fathom this and it reveals its fathomings through art."(608) The artist uses his imagination to grasp reality and interpret it, thus creating art. In reality, the human mind cannot comprehend reality without a guide or tool to interpret it.

The truth that Ms. Allison talks about is very similar to Ms. Winterson's reality because they are both referring to deeper meaning. It seems as though Ms.Allison's truth is the reality that Ms. Winterson describes,

and ultimately society is afraid of this reality because it is too vast for them to understand. According to Ms. Winterson, the answer to this dilemma is to use the imagination to comprehend the truth that is reality. An artist sees and understands this, thus creating art that leaves the mind in thought.

The artist must use imagination to create reality. Imagination is a human ability to create or interpret an idea or thought into his or her own reality. Reality is defined as being things we can physically comprehend using our senses. A human cannot comprehend reality in its purest form because it is too vast for our minds. An artist has to create art in such a way that it explains some form of reality using the imagination, which explains Jeannette Winterson's statement "The reality of art is the reality of the imagination."(608)

Appendix B.5: 'Daffodil' Essay

Pablo Picasso said, "Some painters transform the sun into a yellow spot, others transform a yellow spot into the sun," (www.quoteland.com). A painter can also be referred to more generally as an artist. With this quote, one can believe that art is what the artist makes it be. This can very clearly be seen in the two essays, "Imagination and Reality" by Jeanette Winterson and "This Is Our World" by Dorothy Allison. In their essays, both artists express their personal views on art and the role of an artist. Art is the use of skill and imagination for one to express his or her thoughts, feelings, dreams, and experiences to the world. It is easier to describe art as the way something is done. In her essay, "Imagination and Reality," Jeanette Winterson implies that she believes art is a way to escape the true reality and enter into an imaginative reality. In contrast to Winterson, in "This Is Our World," Dorothy Allison concludes that art attempts to reveal the hidden and covered truth. Although both Winterson and Allison agree and discuss the close dependence of art to reality in their essays, they contrast in their beliefs of the role of art. Through the titles of their essays, it can clearly be seen that Winterson thinks art is the best way to show one's imagination. On the other hand, Allison thinks art is a way to show the harsh realities, or the truth, of life.

The title of Jeanette Winterson's essay is "Imagination and Reality." The two major words in the title – imagination and reality – are extremely powerful words. Imagination is the power to form a mental image of something that is neither perceived as real nor present to the senses. Conversely, reality is the state or quality of being real, or true. Thus, one can say that imagination is what it could be, while reality is what it really is. Although these two words are paradoxical, Winterson uses them together, and develops her point of the role of art on the basis of the words.

According to Winterson, imagination and reality have a close dependence to each other. Throughout her essay, the writer uses the word 'art' and 'imagination' instead of each other. For example, "The honest currency of art is the honest currency of the imagination," (page 598). This 'honest currency' that Winterson refers to is the true reality. Our true reality is actually a molded notional life, which consists of extremely materialistic social norms. We all survive on money. Our social norms of society has become, "people who cannot buy things are the underclass," (page 604). That is why when Winterson's mother sat in her parlor with a biscuit that she bought, she felt like a lady. However, when she sat at home with homemade furniture, she felt extremely depressed. Thus, our reality affects our imagination.

In her essay, Winterson argues on the ongoing debate of what is art? She argues in the beginning that art is not a documentary. It can show the viewer a different dimension of something. At the same time, it is also a source of entertainment (page 600). However, Winterson also says that we are 'art resistors' because it opposes to the notional life that we are used to. "It fields its own realities, lives by its own currency, aloof to riches and want. Art is dangerous," (page 601). Art does not follow a set of rules. No one can control art. And so, art is endless. That is why Winterson believes that art has a close relationship with religion as well. "The god-instinct and the art-instinct both apprehend more than the physical biological material world," (page 599). Both, religion and art, accept that reality is much more complex than what the average individual does. Also, Winterson compares art to love. "Love is reciprocity and so is art. Either you abandon yourself to another world that you say you seek or you find ways to resist it," (page 601). This shows how the writer that an individual either is completely for art, or is completely against art. There are no in betweens in art. Therefore, according to Winterson, most of us resist art because it is dangerous and complex.

In the title, the word 'imagination' can start a debate about a lot of things. In her essay, Winterson argues that art is the best way to show one's imagination. Although one does imagine by accepting his or her reality, art is the best way to show that imagination. "Those densities of imaginative experience that belong to us all and that are best communicated through art," (page 603). Imagination is of a higher power because it is extremely developed. In one's imagination, the individual can either create new ideas or alter old ideas into new dimensions. In whatever way one imagines, it still must start with his or her reality. "Imagination takes in the world of sense experience, and rather than trading it for a world of symbols, delights in it for what it is," (page 607). By saying this, Winterson argues that imagination bypasses the notional life of buying symbols, and instead looks deeper into the meaning of the symbol. Winterson further elevates the role of imagination by comparing it to royalty. "The role of the King or Queen has been to lead and inspire, this is an imaginative role," (page 602). Once again, the writer augment's imagination to a higher level – "This is not common sense. It is imagination," (page 602). Winterson argues in her essay that imagination is a higher level of thinking which comes from reality.

The second part of the title, 'reality' has different meanings for all. In her essay, Winterson states the origins of the word "used to mean a Spanish sixpence; a small silver coin, money of account in the days when the value of a coin was the value of its metal," (page 598). However, she mentions that we are now used to 'notional money' but 'real' is supposed to be the honest currency. That is what real was originally supposed to be – something honest. However, over the years, human nature has changed reality into a very materialistic life.

All we care about is money. “The habit of human beings is to see things subjectively or not to see them at all. The more familiar a thing becomes the less it is seen,” (page 603). For example, the everyday furniture that is handmade does not make an individual elevated while a biscuit bought from the store does. The more furniture one has in his or her house that is bought, it elevates the individual on the social status. Now, we go out and buy symbols that have a particular value attached to them instead of objects that we really need. In addition, in Winterson’s essay, she points out that for a realist “art is a copying machine busily copying themselves,” (page 607). This is the exact opposite of what art is supposed to be. Art does not depend on time and that is why an artist cannot work “between 9 and 6, five days a week, or if she sometimes does, she cannot guarantee to do so,” (page 601). Because of this uncertainty, many people try to resist art. Art is different from the reality of the world.

In her essay, Winterson argues if one adds imagination and reality, it will equate to art. This is because art is just an extension of the reality that we are living through right now. It is an ‘imaginative reality.’ Art is not experience; it is an attachment to the reality we live. In addition, reality and imagination are one idea. “Our real lives hold within them our royal lives; the inspiration to be more than we are, to find new solutions, to live beyond the moment,” (page 603). Art just helps the individual to do this by putting together the true and imaginative realities. According to Winterson, imagination is the only power that can understand the complex idea of reality, which is revealed through art.

Appendix B.6: Transcription of ICS1 Interview

[START ICS1.MP3]

INTERVIEWER: And maybe we could start, maybe just go through them one by one. Since it wasn't really—I wasn't asking you to compare or rank them which was the best, which was the second best. But—

ICS1: What were your instructions about—where's that cover?

INTERVIEWER: To—where is that, [inaudible].

ICS1: Because I kind of thought you did say something about which was the best.

INTERVIEWER: No, what—

ICS1: No?

INTERVIEWER: No. I don't think I have—I have this [inaudible]. Which was similar, but they were sort of to look at it as how they would judge it and how they thought an instructor was to judge it. But yeah, but the idea was not that—

ICS1: I [unintelligible] you said good, fair, poor.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Good, fair, poor, but I mean not that one was good and one was fair and one was poor and I want you to decide which is which.

ICS1: Oh.

INTERVIEWER: I wanted you to sort of look at each one individually and decide this one is good, this one is good, this one is good, or you know [inaudible].

ICS1: Well for the purposes of your research, I thought that was ambiguous.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you, that's good to know.

ICS1: Because I was thinking, hmm, which is the good one, which is the fair one, which is the poor one. Now I might've misread that, but I think—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: I could've been less attentive than I should've been. But so maybe it's somewhere [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Okay. So the first one, okay, the uses of imagination in art. The—

INTERVIEWER: Here it is.

ICS1: I'm looking at, you know, I really put a lot of stock in intros, okay.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

ICS1: So I right away was wondering where was the author's voice, and where was the almost kind of continuity of or extension of what Winterson and Allison were writing.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Okay? So when the first sentence says great [unintelligible], I'm sorry, great art is based on ideas instead of facts, I was thinking right away, it's like, is that an echo from or is that person just coming up with this as his or her own theory right away?

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Like, lead off thesis, you know.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

ICS1: And then it says it tries to show its audience. Okay. So great art is trying to show its audience the truth that may not be seen directly. Again, I see kind of off my peripheral vision we've got a citation coming up, so I'm wondering if it is summarizing the quotation. Again, I'm not sure whose voice that is, exactly.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Or if there's a distinctive influence going on there. And then when I do read Winterson I'm thinking, that's, yes, the person has already digested Winterson, because when she says we think we live in a world of sense experience, okay, what we touch, you know, the implication is that we don't actually live in a world of sense experience.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: That's my reading of that. So truth is not seen as one of the primary senses by the author. So anyway, I'm right away feeling like I'm doing a lot of work here. Unpacking, second guessing, what the author has to say if it's an extension of—an extension of what was read or sort of independent of. The next sentence, again, I really give close attention to the kind of blueprint of the intro, so Winterson believes that our society as a whole bases its opinions on what is proved fact by our senses. Okay. Then I'm feeling like wait a minute, the first sentence says it's based on ideas instead of facts. And now we're getting a qualification that society is basing its opinions on proven fact. Proven by our senses.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: So I'm not sure, you know, I'm boggled here on the ideas, facts, senses, what we think but what actually is, and then ultimately what is the triangulation with art.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: So I'm feeling exhausted by the end of the first paragraph.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Good. [Laughter]

ICS1: So anyway, it feels like an early draft to me.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: And it really kind of continues with a lot of—on the ladder of abstraction. Pretty high up stuff. Art is like religion. Well, I want to know, well, okay, you know, that's a whole essay right there.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: And so we're now leaving behind the senses, facts, and truth. In some ways, now we're going into religion, and so we're—it's traveling too fast for me.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: I want the essay to slow down and give me more depth.

INTERVIEWER: Or at least set the reader up with a clear—here's overall what I'm going to talk about, and I'm going to get there this way.

ICS1: Even if it—

INTERVIEWER: [Unintelligible].

ICS1: Even if it doesn't have that kind of overt outline-ness to it, or foreshadowing, I'm open to a variety of approaches, even if it's sort of multi-facet, but I'm stuck on these levels of abstraction that are too high up for me to, you know, especially as a student and as a lecturer in religion, you throw in the religion word and right away I'm thinking 10,000 thoughts about, you know, assumptions and culture and not necessarily art, but as one of the expressions of religion. So it's, like, it's heavily determined when I hear that term, so that's—

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: And again, you know, the Winterson, you know, she's just got all of these possibilities, like major U-Haul come unpack me sort of thing. And so the quotation there from 599, to accept god was to accept otherness, and while this did not make the life of the artist any easier, you know, I'm not sure if she's talking about the artist in a particular historical period, which I would need to know, because artists are not, sort of trans-historical. Anyway, a general agreement that there's more around us than the mundane allows the artist a greater license and greater authority than—and now I'm wondering wait, what about the syntax here. Is this copied right? To accept—a general agreement that there is more around us than the mundane. Okay. I needed a comma there, I guess. Allows the artist a greater license and a greater authority than he or she can expect in a society that recognizes nothing but itself. Now I have a question mark over the last phrase.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: You know, this is an incredibly ambitious passage from Winterson. It's like, you know, my comment was, like, wow, why not bite off one of the tougher things that I could spend a weekend writing about, and still not be very happy with. So it was sort of like citation selection.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: You know, or, you know, at that point I was thinking, you know, Winterson is too tough.

INTERVIEWER: It is, yeah.

ICS1: You know?

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Yeah. And [inaudible].

ICS1: I mean if this is—I haven't read that article in a while, but if this is representative of the thing, it's like, ouch, you know.

INTERVIEWER: It's a very tough, it's a very dense essay. Yeah. It's not the—it's definitely—I don't think [unintelligible]. Certainly more inexperienced and non-native [unintelligible].

ICS1: And notice how the bookends to that passage, the writer opens it up with the art/religion, okay, and a lot of what the passage says is really not directly about religion, okay. Or overtly so. Right? It's about authority and it's about, you know, a sense of otherness and strangeness. And then the writer comes back with the first time I read this passage it really made me think about religion. You know, so it's just like religion, religion, bouncing off that one word, god.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: Everything else was sort of skipped over, because obviously it was too unfamiliar.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

ICS1: And then we get a kind of makeshift follow-up of what religion means to the person.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

ICS1: Okay. Beliefs and so forth, okay. And then we get religion is fact—I just have a lot of resistance to that point.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: So I'm skipping all of a sudden.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Yeah.

ICS1: I mean, in my reading.

INTERVIEWER: Exactly. Oh yeah.

ICS1: So, you know, the next page is just like, or as Gladwell would say, I'm thin slicing. The next page, I [unintelligible] glancing at this memory, you know, I think back to my childhood, I'm not sure, you know, sort of why we're getting this personal narrative. I'm not very patient, I notice, in my own reaction. So I see a personal essay in a close reading essay, and I'm not seeing the link.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: Anyway, so I go on over sort of page three, and I start—as you see, I start circling the I constructions. I feel, I agree with, I believe, I have to admit.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm. [Unintelligible].

ICS1: Yeah. I felt and so forth. And it's obviously the person would much rather occupy the personal narrative than the analytical, academic essay that actually looks at ideas as separate from the writer, or as in addition to a writer, you know, or—I'm not sure of the location of the personal essay versus, or if it is versus the academic. But anyway there seems to be an unhappy marriage between these two.

INTERVIEWER: Got it. Or just a huge gap that this student can't seem to cross.

ICS1: The other thing is, in a technical sense, I really want quotations to be introduced.

INTERVIEWER: Doesn't that make you crazy? That makes me crazy. It just—it's, yeah.

ICS1: And so—

INTERVIEWER: I spend so much time on that in class, and then they don't do it [unintelligible] insane.

ICS1: Yeah. It's sort of like, you know, the disembodied voice.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ICS1: But it's interesting. To me as a kind of emblematic of it in fact being a kind of disembodied voice.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ICS1: I mean, it abruptly shows up in essays, just because it's a very—an abrupt thing to them. There hasn't been an introduction. They can't synthesize it yet, it seems like, so the very lack of a transition I think is very telling about, you know, it's this grafted on thing. It's this foreign, you know, linguistic moment that—

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ICS1: It's like, I guess I'm supposed to bring this in, because she insists on it.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Yeah. Interesting.

ICS1: Anyway, so it was a combination of too much focus on the writer, key terms in the prompt were missing. Okay. I kept looking at the end of the prompt where it talks about the reciprocity, resistance, a sense of being unsettled, and I didn't see any of those terms.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Questions?

INTERVIEWER: So how would you, if you would, good, fair, poor? Where would you stick Hyacinth on [inaudible]?

ICS1: Well, you know, I found myself really, again, a kind of resistance to the overarching terms, as if we know what we mean by those. In other words, I wasn't sure—I wasn't sure what you had taught to surround this thing with a context to say ah, it's fair within that.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

ICS1: I only had the prompt.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: I don't have the syllabus, I don't have course calendar.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: And so I don't know what you've taught exactly. So I was thinking, well, you know, maybe Mary hasn't emphasized introducing citations.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Maybe you haven't had any workshops or practice on, you know, the sort of recycling of key terms in it. So I'm objecting to something that hasn't been taught.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. It was, by the way, all of that stuff.

ICS1: Okay. But because I didn't know that—

INTERVIEWER: Right. Exactly.

ICS1: For me to come up with a fair, poor, sort of thing, would be using my template—

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: And superimposing it on—

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: This.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ICS1: So I sort of, and I said that, you know, as a note toward the end, you know, I sort of respond in terms of if this were my student.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: But, you know, I don't know this student in your context, so those terms, fair, good, poor, fell away for me.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. All right. That's fine.

ICS1: Does that mess up your research?

INTERVIEWER: No, not at all. Not at all. In terms of—would you—was there anything in this essay—would you assume that this essay was written by a native speaker or a non-native speaker, each?

ICS1: Oh, that's a good—that's a good question.

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible] were there any—?

ICS1: Yeah. I didn't, I didn't feel like there were usage things that were nonstandard.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. Good. How was language overall? Language, grammar, syntax?

ICS1: I didn't—I didn't call attention to it. In other words, it seemed very typical of my students in English 15.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Even in 202. A lot of sentences begin with this, and kind of vague pronouns, a lot of overuse of the verb to be.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: The kind of standard stuff.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: You know, fairly repetitious, subject, verb, object constructions.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: It's all about how it's not important, you know, the it's, it's.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: But, you know, the person has the apostrophe with it's. So to me, this is—

INTERVIEWER: [Unintelligible].

ICS1: I mean, you know, I have—I have English 202 people who don't do that.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ICS1: So I thought that, yeah, the usage was, and syntax, was okay. And I wouldn't think ESL class at all.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. All right. Interesting. How about Tulip? What did you have to say about Tulip?

ICS1: Okay. Tulip, it was much more text-based. We didn't get an overabundance of the I, person in fact, I think, avoided it entirely. If I'm not mistaken. Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ICS1: Okay. So this seemed to be the flip side of the other one. This seemed to be the other extreme. This person was not going to either risk or—oh, oh I'm sorry. There is one use of I.

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible] on the first page, yeah.

ICS1: Okay. That was it. So the person was obviously wanting to do a close reading more than do a personal response. I thought that what there was—there was a plethora of citations included, but not read closely.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: And ultimately I was left with—and again part of it is the assignment, part of it is not coming down the ladder of abstraction, to keep to Hiokawa's [phonetic] expression. So I thought it was vague and abstract. Again, maybe a product of the readings in the prompt. And finally, there was no stance taken. It adds anything to what the authors were writing. It's like the person's allegiance was to, was to kind of include as many citations with a kind of restating them or just skipping on as if they spoke for themselves, so I didn't feel like there was an author's presence in terms of the stance or position to the key terms.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. [Inaudible].

ICS1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Interesting. Okay. What about this one? Would you label this [inaudible] speaker, [inaudible] speaker? Any thoughts? A feeling there one way or the other?

ICS1: No. I didn't feel like this was a non-native speaker.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: Again I didn't, I didn't isolate—I didn't isolate usage errors.

INTERVIEWER: Right. And the last one, Daffodil?

ICS1: Daffodil. Okay. Again we have the extremes. In this case, we've got a lack of page citation identification of what pages things come from, which I find annoying.

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible].

ICS1: And easy—not just really my personal, subjective thing about annoyance, but it's such an easy detail that it suggests a larger sense of inattention, okay. So as I teach my students, it's symbolic, so that, you know, it's kind of like—it's kind of like not using spell check.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: Bad message.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: The—I thought that there were more sort of obvious things that it stated here. For example, in the intro, wonderful citation from Picasso, and as you know, the danger of a great citation like that is what to say that will even get close to doing it justice or having any kind of—you know, we pale next to Picasso saying stuff like the sun is a yellow spot transformed into the sun. So the follow-up, it's just like the writer was completely outflanked. What can he or she say? A painter can also be referred to more generally as an artist. So it's kind of like there was no sense of—it was almost, the person was suffering from the anxiety of influence, you know. It was like, you know, how can I possibly say anything.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: And so the person didn't. There were sort of unsubstantiated like, claims that didn't seem to organically come out of what Winterson or Allison were saying. For instance, on the second page, you know, mid-paragraph up at the top, our true reality is actually a molded notional life which consists of extremely materialistic, social norms. Okay. Well, I don't remember what notional—a notion, but, you know, I need help with what is meant there. And it didn't seem to come out of honest currency, so I didn't know—and then the next one is we all survive on money, so it goes from sort of pathos to bathos or something there. You know, it's got a kind of, you know, a kind of engagement, but then it falls into the next sentence, we all survive on money. So the oil and water, maybe, is a better metaphor for me. It's like, you know, it's like high intellectual dunce cap.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: You know, I—

INTERVIEWER: Almost the same thing with the opening, with that great quote and then losing it with the next statement.

ICS1: Yeah. Right. Right. On page 3 I marked this sense of choppy, sort of separate claims, underdeveloped.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: In that paragraph. In the title, the word imagination, that one. I marked the overuse of however, twice in the same paragraph. In the next one, simple peccadillo, but again I come back to a lack of paragraphing. This all conclusion, and maybe it's just sloppiness in format, with the—[unintelligible] essay not being indented.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ICS1: So, you know, I had to guess on that. But there's a real lack of syntactic—syntactical variety, I thought. SVO, pretty much throughout. I did think this had closer readings at times and clearer comparisons between the authors. So I finally said well, you know, I think all in all this is probably the best of show.

INTERVIEWER: Oh that's interesting. Okay. And this one, native speaker? Non-native speaker?

ICS1: No, I didn't, I didn't—I didn't notice, you know, classic sort of omission of definite articles or you know, sort of the verb endings. You know, being present continuous when it clearly was past or just before it or, you know, there's a few usage errors, but I would say typical freshman stuff.

INTERVIEWER: Great. That was it, that's all I needed to—

ICS1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you so much.

ICS1: Sure, sure. I'm glad.

INTERVIEWER: So can I keep your notes?

ICS1: Oh yeah, sure.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you.

ICS1: Just so you remember to send me the two prompts.

INTERVIEWER: I will. I will.

ICS1: I'll leave that purple one to remind you.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ICS1: That I needed it and [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: I have a couple of others too that are broken down to the [inaudible].

[Break in audio]

[Pause]

[END ICS1.MP3]

Appendix B.7: Transcription of ISA1 Interview

Interviews — ISA1

[START ISA1.MP3]

ISA1: When I went through and read them, I did exactly what I always do with the papers, and I look, you know, and say grammar—

[Break in audio]

[Inaudible]

ISA1: —and I guess it was the same as, you know, with [unintelligible] did they—because I read your instructions, and so one thing was that—I think there was only one that really seemed to address all the stuff that you had asked them to address. Without having actually read their prompt articles.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ISA1: That there were some specific things you wanted to answer, so I looked—I was grading based on that as well.

INTERVIEWER: Well good.

ISA1: You know, as to whether they actually followed the instructions. And I was assuming that everybody got the exact same instructions.

INTERVIEWER: They did.

ISA1: But then—and then I just remember that one of them seemed to be either a very advanced ESL person or a native speaker, whereas the others, you could see evidence of struggling with language that seemed to be more from a, you know, non-native speaker. So that—

INTERVIEWER: Do you remember which [inaudible]?

ISA1: I remember the middle one was the one that was—that was the—I'm sure it's in my notes here. That was—that seemed to be—let me see [inaudible] here. That seemed to, you know, to have a good command of the language. It must've been the third one.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: Let me see, or maybe it was the first one. Oh yeah. I said good plus, so it was the first one.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: Yeah. And then the third one seemed to be—do well. And it was the middle one who—middle one was the one that stood out as having the most trouble.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: This whole thing with Miss, Ms., that would tell me that they're—this is not an American. [Laughter] So that's really, as far as how I judged them, that's what I remember. I don't really remember detail after that. And I tried to just put down my notes.

INTERVIEWER: Do you remember anything specifically standing out in terms of quality of the writing in terms of [unintelligible] today—in terms of college level writing. Is this what you would expect, say, from freshmen in college? Or were they not appropriate to college level or advanced college level or—?

ISA1: Right. Well, when I—here I put college level English, that was the first one.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: And if I remember right, other than—I see using contractions, which drive me crazy, yeah, there were some little problems, but yeah. What I would expect at the college level. Maybe not freshmen—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: Just from my own experience. We'd want it to be like this. We should be expecting it, but realistically—but there's enough problems with it that it's certainly not advanced. I wouldn't call it advanced.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay.

ISA1: And the other two, [inaudible] remember this one. It's hard, I don't even think the middle one can really be judged—judged in that way, because it's just—you know, it's not college—I mean it's—I would say probably very good for somebody who was a non-native speaker.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: But it's not what I would be wanting at a college level. And I guess—it looks like the third one was also pretty good. I didn't make a specific note about college level, but I did say it was well-written, well-organized.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Native speaker or non-native speaker, would you consider it?

ISA1: If I remember right, it's hard for me to do without reading it over. Awkward wording. Probably, if I'm remembering right, that word awkward wording, that may be not native speaker, but somebody who had, you know, was doing quite well.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: Use of the—see, the thing is, like prepositions at the ends of sentences, and things like that. But that—I mean, that's a problem. Students do it no matter what.

INTERVIEWER: I know.

ISA1: So it's hard to tell. But I would say if I had to choose, maybe not. Maybe not ESL.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA1: I mean, maybe ESL. Maybe, maybe not native.

INTERVIEWER: All right.

ISA1: It's funny, because with my own students, unless they are clearly a foreign student, you know, it's just something I don't really think about.

INTERVIEWER: Right. Well, that's good.

ISA1: I mean when I'm grading. I mean sometimes—with some of them I get—it's really—I don't know what to do, because it's a good paper. They've, you know, put some good thought in it. They're, you know, addressing things, but the language is so bad you just can't give them an A.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ISA1: And so I tried to actually with them take a lot of time to note this is what you're having trouble with, review this, you know, even though it's not really what I'm supposed to be doing, and hope that they accept it as constructive.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ISA1: Rather than that, you know, knocking them down for all the effort that they put in there, so—

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ISA1: But I usually don't get a lot of feedback from them as to how they receive it.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Yeah. I mean, yeah, and it happens with all of us too, you know, ideally they'll take that and go to the tutoring center and say okay.

ISA1: Right. Right.

INTERVIEWER: Occasionally you'll get a student who will say can I try to rework this, would you look at it again.

ISA1: Right.

INTERVIEWER: And that's rare.

ISA1: Right.

INTERVIEWER: That's our fantasy student.

ISA1: Right. [Laughter]

INTERVIEWER: Well that's actually really all I wanted to just, you know, sort of touch in with you on your notes and see, you know, what else you remembered.

[Break in audio]

[END ISA1.MP3]

Appendix B.8: Transcription of ISA2 Interview

Interviews — ISA2

[START ISA2.MP3]

INTERVIEWER: What I'm doing for my dissertation is I'm trying to make the argument that the immigrant students that we have who have graduated from US high schools are still—they sort of get mainstreamed. But they're still language learners in a sense, and when they're identified, or when they choose to identify themselves as non-native speakers, they get sort of thrown in with traditional ESL learners, which are historically the international students who, you know, are high achievers in their home countries. They've had years of English classes, and it's a very different kind of background and a very different kind of learning, and strangely enough, it's just over sort of the past five years that people are kind of catching on to the fact that wow, we've sort of lumped these people together and they don't really belong together. Because they have very different needs.

So what I'm doing with my dissertation is trying to actually find out what the exact differences are. And I'm collecting all these essays—

ISA2: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: And doing all these linguistic analyses. And I'm sort of in the last stretch now in my advisement and we're talking about what a lot of these differences come down to are elements of identity. And how they—ESL students traditionally, for example, almost never use the first person pronoun in academic writing. They've been taught a very formal, very distinct sort of style. Native speakers will use it sometimes, sometimes not. And these sort of what they're termed generation 1.5, because sort of in between, tend to whatever they write about, they tend to insert themselves in it somehow. In a variety of different linguistic ways, and so I'm—part of my argument is that they're sort of in between groups, and they're at a pretty formative age, so a lot of what they're doing is figuring out who they are in the world, and certainly in this new environment, and it plays out for them linguistically a lot.

And so in order to go beyond sort of my just looking at pure data and beyond my own intuitions, I wanted to ask other people to sort of just read some essays and get some feedback and see if I'm just sort of, you know, off the wall totally or if I'm sort of looking at things in line with this, not only other English teachers, but content area teachers as well.

ISA2: Okay. Okay.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So that's where this all comes from.

ISA2: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: And so I gave you these three essays, and they—the reason for the naming them as I did was so that there'll be no sort of gender association or numeric ranking association at all.

ISA2: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: And just kind of wanted your loose feedback on whether you think they're good, they're fair, they're poor, what it, you know, if the one versus the other, you know, what elements sort of stand out to you, and that kind of stuff.

ISA2: Okay. Like I said, my memory of these are a little rusty at this point. But here were my impressions as I can—

[Break in audio]

ISA2: What I'd said was I found the first two essays to be poor.

INTERVIEWER: Oh interesting. Okay. Good.

ISA2: And the last one I have written down good with a question mark.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. [Laughter]

ISA2: And then even though you had said, like, this isn't necessarily a comparative project—

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ISA2: I think if I had to do some sort of comparison, I think I found the first one to be the worst of the—or to be inferior to the second one. So even though I thought the second one was poor, I did think that the second—I found the second one to be better than the first one.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Can you tell me why?

ISA2: Here, okay, so it seemed to me that the second one, even though I had it ranked as poor, it did seem to me that it was following the instructions. That it was engaged in some sort of comparative project between the two texts that had been assigned.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA2: And it did seem to me like there was something like a thesis or a main claim that emerged in the paper. So that, you know, it seems like the author was saying something about how in both of these others there's this interest in how there's more to the world than what's obvious or visibly real, and the imagination plays some role. So even though I found, like, the writing to be kind of unpolished and unclear and there was a lot to criticize, there was, I thought, at least, okay, there's a main claim, they're engaged in some sort of textual analysis. And that seemed to be what was going on in the instructions.

And then the third observation, I think I had about the second one, was even though I think oftentimes the quotes didn't necessarily service it, there were at least a few moments where it seemed to me like okay, quotes from the text are being brought in to—as evidence in favor of something like an interpretation of the two texts or to illustrate some claim.

INTERVIEWER: It's at least an attempt to [inaudible].

ISA2: Yeah. Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

ISA2: Whereas I think for the first one, flipping back to the first one, I guess I found, like, it seemed to me in a way, on the one hand, you know, that the writing seemed clear enough on certain—a sentence by sentence level.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA2: But at the same time, it seemed to me like there didn't seem to be a discernable thesis or main claim to the paper. It seemed to me that the paper did read almost more like an autobiography of things the author thought while writing it. So first I thought of this, then that made me think about the students that I tutor, and

then that got me thinking about this, and so—and it did seem like it was less an essay about the two books and more a string of thoughts sort of inspired by the two books that focused as much on the author as the books themselves.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA2: This was maybe me being harsh, but when I looked over it, I didn't find any quotes from the Allison text.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ISA2: And so I think if this was an essay from a class that I was teaching, a paper that was submitted to a class that I was teaching that was a comparative project, I would probably have the suspicion that maybe the person who wrote it hadn't read the essays and so—yeah. And I think there were a few sort of critical comments that I had about the way the quotations were being used. And then the final essay, I think—I thought it was a pretty good essay. I mean, it was sort of—I mean, the writing was fairly polished. There was, you know, a thesis, you know, quotes were being used as evidence in support of claims about the text.

I think it was in some ways like one of these polished pieces of writing that I'm not necessarily crazy about as a philosopher. So I think we have sort of disciplinary differences from English in that—or other disciplines, where we don't mind using the first person and we want everything to be clear and straightforward. And there were some sort of rhetorical fireworks. There was times when I felt like, you know, just tell me your main—you know, the point that you're making here. But I thought it was probably a pretty good essay.

Now if a student came in, I would probably give it a high B or something like that, and I might make suggestions to take this out, but I think the gist of my suggestions that would be more stylistic rather than substantive.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Let me ask you about language. For these three, do any of them strike you as being written by non-native speakers, versus native speakers?

ISA2: Let me think about that for a second. I probably would not have had that impression for Daffodil's paper, the last of the three. I might not have had that impression about Hyacinth's paper either, because I think I did have the reaction that, you know, on a sentence by sentence level, there's never a moment where it seems to me that the writing's unclear or that I am identifying many very glaring, you know, spelling or grammatical mistakes or anything like that. I think that the second paper, Tulip's paper, I might've considered that. I mean in some ways I think my impression of Tulip's paper was that, you know, the writing, you know, the writing itself was bad, but the student understood the assignment or there was a, you know. So I think I might've had that impression about Tulip's paper.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay.

ISA2: I don't know whether it would've jumped out at me as being a paper written by some—an ESL student or something like that, but someone whose, you know, language skills or writing skills were pretty poor, but you know, who's making a sort of good faith effort to really do the assignment and where there was enough substance in the assignment that we could, you know—I have a sense as to where we would, you know, be able to go in order to make it a better paper.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. How about level of—you talked about, I think it was, maybe it's with Daffodil, certain kinds of rhetorical types of things happening in their discussion. In terms of sense of logic and structure, how would you rank these?

ISA2: In terms of logic and structure. I mean, I still feel that first paper, Hyacinth's paper, would be lowest on my chart. This is, I don't know, it's kind of funny. I want to put Tulip on top, but I probably shouldn't, you know.

INTERVIEWER: [Laughter].

ISA2: I think—

INTERVIEWER: Is that because you feel bad because Tulip was so bad with everything else or—?

ISA2: I don't know. I guess my impression of Daffodil's paper is that it's a good workmanlike essay, but that's not necessarily ambitious. I mean the logic in this—it seemed to me like it was a paper that was written by someone who, you know, might've had an honors English class in high school, you know, and so has been sort of walked through how to write, you know, a five paragraph, you know, argumentative essay and is sort of going through the motions. Whereas I think I—so I mean, the logic in a certain sense was there and was consistent. But whereas, you know, maybe I'm reading too much into the personalities here, but I had the sense that Tulip's, you know, writing skills were not as polished but where Tulip was actually making more of an effort to find something interesting to say about the way that these two texts relate to one another, what they had to say to one another.

So I almost wanted to say, like, okay, I can see the germ of a really interesting argument being developed at the end of Tulip's paper, whereas Daffodil's paper strikes me as this good, workmanlike, essay. But I'm sort of in a sense more impressed by Tulip's paper.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. By the effort that Tulip tried to make.

ISA2: That's right, that's right.

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible] the actual paper. Okay. In terms of, sort of, academic level, would any of these—are they sort of what you expect in terms of freshman college writers? Or not? Especially in terms of what you see in terms of your classes and how freshmen or lower classmen write papers. Because we're in such a bubble in our comp classes.

ISA2: Boy. I'm not—I'm not sure how to answer that. With my classes, with the—they have midterm papers and then final papers, but then with each one I use something like rubrics where they get, like, a breakdown of how many points they get on each section, and it's a way of me partly sort of giving them—I guess sometimes I have the sense that they sort of need sort of the biggest difficulty they have is just sort of structuring their thoughts and learning how to structure a paper. And so by doing that, I've sort of given them the structure and they need to fill in the content.

So in some ways I feel like I don't get a lot of papers that make some of the mistakes or the things that I find worrisome about these two, but only because I sort of ruled it out from the get-go.

INTERVIEWER: [Laughter] [Inaudible].

ISA2: Yeah. So I don't know, having said that, I mean I guess I have the sense that I see qualities in both Daffodil's and Tulip—sorry, the last paper, Daffodil's paper, and the second paper, Tulip's paper, that I think I do see in my students. And I'm not sure exactly what, like, what to put them up on. I guess I'm going by sort of seeing the form and I guess I had the impression that Daffodil's paper, you know, it strikes me as a sort of good, workmanlike paper from someone who did well in English classes in high school, and so I can imagine a first year student coming here with those kinds of writing skills, and I feel like with that student sometimes the trick, I feel like, is to sort of get them to make the switchover from, you know, sort of churning out these workmanlike essays, to realizing that you're now trying to do something new in your writing at the college

level, which is to impress me by thinking of some really original thought or coming up with a really original interpretation. And it's a way of getting them beyond, you know, just sort of these kind of simplistic compare and contrast type papers.

Whereas I think I had the sense with Tulip's paper, the writing seems kind of unpolished, and I think I might have the sense that the intuition that maybe the person put it off for a while. Or I feel like I often see a paper where you kind of sort of get the sense that they're building up steam.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ISA2: They don't know quite what they want to say until the last paragraph, but they introduce an interesting claim, but they haven't had time to really develop it yet. And so I feel like, look. I mean, I see, like, that quality a lot in students. And so with Tulip, with that kind of student, the trick is sometimes to force them to get that interesting claim earlier in the paper, so they have more time to develop it later on.

INTERVIEWER: Good, okay. That's good. That's it.

ISA2: Okay. Okay.

[END ISA2.MP3]

Appendix B.9: Transcription of GEN1 Interview

Interviews — GEN1

[START GEN1.MP3]

INTERVIEWER: All right. So do we even remember these essays? It's been such a long time.

GEN1: [Unintelligible] I have a couple of them, but I wrote it in the notes.

INTERVIEWER: Oh good.

GEN1: So I have the notes with me, so—

INTERVIEWER: Excellent.

GEN1: So it's helpful.

INTERVIEWER: Excellent. So yes, I—a lot of it, I'm sure, was familiar, because we did the same thing—

GEN1: [Unintelligible].

INTERVIEWER: The same assignment for our class.

GEN1: I agree.

INTERVIEWER: Here we go, that's what I was looking for. All right. And really what I wanted to do is get a sense of whether or not you thought—how you would evaluate these essays and if your evaluation, if you thought your evaluation would be the same as how the instructor would—

GEN1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: And they—I named them by flowers so that there wouldn't be any, you know, like number or any, you know, any identifying things or any way to sort of rank them, so.

GEN1: I didn't like it. [Unintelligible] I knew that there was flowers.

INTERVIEWER: So Hyacinth was the first one. What did you think of Hyacinth?

GEN1: I would say good.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And would you think an instructor would rank it as good as well?

GEN1: I would say good because some of them opinion—want me to read for you what I wrote?

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

GEN1: He and she had a good opinion, had a good story about the using of imagination. He and she believed that people should not lose their imagination. Imagination is a good thing. It makes you focus in art. And also I found a [unintelligible] page 3 and some tenses. Second paragraph underlined sentences. It's about he, he was having a difficult understanding except what the artist was trying to represent.

INTERVIEWER: So tell me why you think that's a good sentence. What about that sentence is good?

GEN1: I, in my opinion, I put it, I like it, because not all people are understanding art. This is much has a good example on how he feel about understanding on art. I know, because I do not understand art either.

INTERVIEWER: [Laughter].

GEN1: That was my [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So you, how did you think about the organization of this essay? Was it well organized?

GEN1: It was pretty good. I like it the way this started.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: I really like it. I will say I like the story, it is a good paper.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And how about did it answer the assignment, do you think?

GEN1: So far, yeah, I would say yes. Yes, I would say yes.

INTERVIEWER: And how about the language and the grammar? Is it clear?

GEN1: I think I found a few of them, grammars, because I think that person was totally typing up and didn't double-check.

INTERVIEWER: Ah, okay.

GEN1: That's what I would say.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: But otherwise I like it. But some sentences like, out of mind, didn't make sense, so I was keeping repeating over and over, so I find out what exactly they're trying to say.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. How about Tulip?

GEN1: Okay. This one, I would say good. There were a few grammar mistakes.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: I would say the second page, okay. Second paragraph and third paragraph are underlined sentences, so I'll say, if I can find it, okay. Okay. I found it. It seem have through Miss Allison is true, it's, though I realize that Miss Winterson—hmm. This whole paragraph, I so far agree with it strongly.

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

GEN1: And it's realize—that I believe it is true. It seemed to—I like it how he and she explained the same opinion with the Winterson and Allison, and I also agree with it about the—hmm, so society is afraid of this, realize, because it is so big. But on the last paragraph I will say I believe that artists must use imagination to create real life. I like that and I agreed that sometime something—I'm sorry, something it's real when you can physically touch, smell, see, and that use all our sense. Yeah. So far I agree, all of them.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Good. And how about the last one? How about Daffodil?

GEN1: Last one I have really having hard time when I read it.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: And I will say this paper is unorganized. The first paragraph, it doesn't attack the reading. He and she didn't deduce with the paper, introduce the paper. A lot of running on sentences. It was difficult to read and very wordy. I would say—I would put the grade as poor.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. Very interesting.

GEN1: When I read it, when as soon as I hit it then I looked at it quickly and first paragraph should not be really long. It didn't tell us what exactly what they're trying to say.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: So that's why.

INTERVIEWER: Now of all of these three, would you say that any of them or all of them were written by native speakers of English or non-native speakers of English?

GEN1: Non.

INTERVIEWER: All of them?

GEN1: Yes. Oh, not all of them, some of them.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: I would say definitely number third.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: And [inaudible] not all of them. One of them I like it, it seemed like to me, the first one I would say non.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And the second one, native speaker?

GEN1: Native speaker, yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: The third was non.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And was this because of grammar or—?

GEN1: Not because of grammar. You can tell that specifically the English is now a second language, most of them, the writing is like, really interesting, the people who read. Like myself and I, I'll—as soon as I looked at it, and even my second language English is really not that good, but I can tell this perfect. The way they know how to write, by this introduce and conclusion, I can tell really pretty good job they did it.

INTERVIEWER: Excellent. Okay. Great. Let me ask you a couple other questions.

GEN1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: And this is—actually this is more about if it's okay about your use of English, if that's okay.

GEN1: Okay. No problem.

INTERVIEWER: You were born in Somalia, yeah?

GEN1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: Do you still have family there?

GEN1: My family live with me here.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So everybody's here.

GEN1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Good, because I was just hearing on the news this morning there's more problems in Mogadishu.

GEN1: I have a couple of grandmas, an uncle, an aunt. They live there.

INTERVIEWER: Have you heard from them, are they okay?

GEN1: They're okay, yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Oh boy.

GEN1: They have to move different town to town, village to village every time they heard fighting.

INTERVIEWER: Oh my god, it's just so frightening to me. We don't do anything, it makes me crazy. You've been here how long?

GEN1: I've been here six and a half years.

INTERVIEWER: Wow. What was your—the first language that you spoke?

GEN1: Somali.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Did you speak anything else at home besides Somali?

GEN1: I speak Hindi.

INTERVIEWER: Hindi, oh wow.

GEN1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Cool. What was the first language you learned to write?

GEN1: I would say Hindi.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And the first language you learned to read?

GEN1: English.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Now how would you describe yourself? Would you describe yourself as a native speaker of English? A non-native speaker of English? You speak English as a second language, no, because you have already a second language, Hindi. An ESL student? Bilingual?

GEN1: I would say ESL student.

INTERVIEWER: ESL student you think is the best description? Okay. Let's see. This is about school.

GEN1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: Kindergarten, first grade, you went in Somalia?

GEN1: In India.

INTERVIEWER: In India?

GEN1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Oh really? Wow.

GEN1: When I was three years old I came to India.

INTERVIEWER: Oh wow.

GEN1: So.

INTERVIEWER: So and what language was—was most of the lessons in in school?

GEN1: Hindi.

INTERVIEWER: Oh wow, how cool is that. And you were in India for—?

GEN1: Eleven years.

INTERVIEWER: So until, let's see—

GEN1: Until middle.

INTERVIEWER: Like sixth grade or something?

GEN1: Yeah. Around six, five or six, around.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And then you came to the US?

GEN1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Wow, that's—I never knew that. When you were in India, did they have English classes, or—?

GEN1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: Oh, so you did—and what grade or what age did they start English lessons?

GEN1: They started at middle school.

INTERVIEWER: So you started, like, probably fifth grade you had ESL.

GEN1: Yeah. Around fifth grade.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And then you came to the US.

GEN1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: And then English. Now when you came here to school, did you have ESL classes or did they just put you in regular classes?

GEN1: They put me in ESL right away.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So you did have ESL classes here.

GEN1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: For how long?

GEN1: Well I had since I was ten grade. When I went to reach high school, tenth grade.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

GEN1: I was still in ESL.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And they did have actual ESL classes in high school.

GEN1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: Ah, okay. Usually they don't have any, it's terrible. Okay. So I want to ask you now how you would rank your own language use. So if 1 is the best and 3 is not so much, and 2 is in the middle, how would you rank yourself in terms of how well you understand English?

GEN1: Communing with other students and dictionary helping a lot, so I'll say around—I have to choose number?

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. 1 is the best, 3 not so much, and 2 is in the middle.

GEN1: 2.

INTERVIEWER: 2?

GEN1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. How about speaking English?

GEN1: Not that bad, so I would say middle.

INTERVIEWER: Like a 1 or a 2?

GEN1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. How about reading English?

GEN1: Poorly. Um, 3.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. And writing English?

GEN1: 3.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. Now let's do—we'll do the same for Somalian and Hindi, okay?

GEN1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: So for Somalian, how well do you understand?

GEN1: 1.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And speak?

GEN1: Not that much. I speak really good but I'll say 2 or 1 here, 1 or 2.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Read?

GEN1: 3.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And write?

GEN1: 2, middle.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Now how about Hindi? How well do you understand Hindi?

GEN1: Oh really good.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And speak?

GEN1: Really good.

INTERVIEWER: And read?

GEN1: Middle.

INTERVIEWER: Middle. Write?

GEN1: Middle.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. When you talk to your parents, what language do you talk to them with?

GEN1: We always mix it up.

INTERVIEWER: Oh interesting.

GEN1: Yeah. We mix it up. Some words too, if it's, like [unintelligible] it's like the brain is popping some different language, so I'll say mixing.

INTERVIEWER: Mixing all three?

GEN1: Three, yeah.

INTERVIEWER: All three, okay. And when your parents talk to you?

GEN1: [Unintelligible].

INTERVIEWER: And brothers and sister?

GEN1: We talk, like, most in English.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Most of the time English. So at work, here in the library, it's English?

GEN1: English.

INTERVIEWER: All the time?

GEN1: All the time.

INTERVIEWER: All the time English. When you talk with your friends?

GEN1: In there, I would say America, English.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Are all your friends English-speaking here?

GEN1: Yes. A couple of them, they speak my language, yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So maybe four or five English. When you read or write at home, not schoolwork, but just other stuff for news, for pleasure, music, what language do you usually—?

GEN1: Use? With my family I would use—sometimes I'm all the time English.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. At school it's always English, English, English. What language do you dream in?

GEN1: I would—different language. I would love to speak more than four language. I want Spanish. I love Spanish—

INTERVIEWER: But, no, okay, I know, I do too, but not what you would like to do now, when you have dreams. What language are you speaking in your dreams?

GEN1: Hindi.

INTERVIEWER: That's wild. How cool is that. So overall what do you think is your best language?

GEN1: Hindi.

INTERVIEWER: Hindi. Okay. That's very cool. That's really interesting, I had no idea about that. That's really [inaudible]. Okay. That's it. That's all I have. Thank you very—

[END GEN1.MP3]

Appendix B.10: Transcription of ESL1 Interview

Interviews — ESL1

[START ESL1.MP3]

INTERVIEWER: Kind of look at them and see what you think, how you would've assessed each one. And then if you would've thought an instructor would've done it any differently.

ESL1: Right.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So let's—shall we start with Hyacinth.

ESL1: Yeah. I actually summarized, like, I wrote you a small note here about everything.

INTERVIEWER: I love that, that's great, thank you.

ESL1: I don't know if you can read it now, but, like, yeah. I don't know, well, I can do individually, but it surprised me that—I don't know if I'm a harsh, harsh grader, but I found problems in all three of them for some reason.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: And I found out that neither of them were good. Which made me feel bad, but I wanted to, you know, grade one of them as good, but unfortunately—like, I have some reasons. I mean—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: Like, for the first one—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: It was—I realized that it was, like, totally off, because, like, the assignment was asking for, like, for something in particular. There was a comparison going on between—let me see, I haven't looked at this in a while, but it was—yeah, how both authors viewed this art thing, as far as I recall?

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm. This idea of art [inaudible] right.

ESL1: Right. Exactly. Yeah. Like, I made sure—see, I underlined, like, the critical points in the assignment, and then I remember this first student was focusing on Winterson only and not, like, and, like, on certain aspects of the assignment only.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: So, like, like, he or she was, like, really too focused on something, and like the big picture was not addressed.

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ESL1: So that, for me that was a big—

INTERVIEWER: Good observation.

ESL1: That was a big, you know, mistake. So—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: I, you know, I labeled it—I graded it as poor. And then I thought that, like, if—I think this is the maximum—like, if I give this essay, like, half the grade, I think that would be the maximum that an instructor would give. I think an instructor would probably give less, because, like, even the stuff that I read, the instructor would probably find technical problems in there, because obviously whatever the student wrote was not perfect. So.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: So they left out a big part, and then they must've made some mistakes, so I think the instructor would take even more points than I did.

INTERVIEWER: Would even take more points. Okay.

ESL1: That's what I thought about this one.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Let me ask you a couple of questions about this one. How did you—what did you think about the organization of it?

ESL1: Well, since [inaudible] since it wasn't, [inaudible] yeah, it wasn't that good, because—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: Like, when I read the thesis, I was expecting to read an essay about Winterson's ideas only [inaudible]. Well, that was actually the case throughout the essay. See, like, it was one of those essays where there is an idea, and all the paragraphs were addressing the same idea, so, like, there weren't too many ideas to organize.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: It was, like, the same idea being addressed again and again.

INTERVIEWER: Same idea over and over and over.

ESL1: The other problem was that the student used his or her own experiences a lot, which I don't like. Which even in the assignment it was stressed that it's not about your opinion or what you think—

INTERVIEWER: Right. Right.

ESL1: Or your experience, it's about them.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: So that was another problem. But as far as organization is addressed, I—I'm not sure, like, whether I can say that this is another major problem. The essay, but I know that it didn't seem like there were many aspects that were—of the assignment that were discussed in this essay, so yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. How about the language use? Like, would you—would you—if I asked you if this student was a native speaker of English or a non-native speaker of English, did you have any—

ESL1: I would say a non-English speaker.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: Although I didn't realize that, like, there's no bad English. It's not, but, like, it's just that I would expect an English speaker to write a little bit more intensive writing. But that's only why.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: Like, I really don't think that it was bad written English, I thought it was good.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: And I didn't—

INTERVIEWER: Would you think it's, like, university level writing or—?

ESL1: Hmm. Probably. Like, you know, I'm not really sure how university students are expected to write, but yeah. Yeah. It's not low level. It's just that the word choice implies that someone is just not native speaker. But I'm really not sure about that.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: Like, I wouldn't be surprised if it was a native speaker.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL1: It's not like I'm too confident about this answer.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. How about the second one?

ESL1: Okay.

INTERVIEWER: Which was Tulip? Tulip.

ESL1: I can—

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Tulip.

ESL1: Yeah. Mm-hmm. But it's—oh, wait, I skipped something.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. There it is.

ESL1: Yeah. Well, again, like, I don't know why students do that, but, like, see, you can even tell from the title, it's the reality of [unintelligible].

INTERVIEWER: Mm-hmm.

ESL1: And that's not really what the assignment is all about. It's—that's just a part of the assignment, right?

INTERVIEWER: Right.

ESL1: I mean, am I right on that?

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Mm-hmm.

ESL1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Exactly.

ESL1: And it just surprised me, you know, that's not the assignment. And then actually that was a good essay about the reality of imagination. Like, it was good, it was really—like, if that was the assignment, I would've, you know, thought that this is a good essay. But actually that wasn't the topic, so, so yeah, the thesis is not something related to the required topic or it wasn't even mentioned. Like, if art wasn't even mentioned in the

thesis or throughout the essay, that much, so you know, I know, like, I know from taking ESL 15 that whenever you just leave the big topic out of your essay, then, you know, you've lost it. You know?

INTERVIEWER: Exactly. Yeah.

ESL1: So yeah. Like, I'm not sure. Like, I hope—like, I hope I'm addressing these things fairly, but I really—

INTERVIEWER: [Unintelligible]— [Break in audio] [END ESL1.MP3]

Appendix B.11: Transcription of ESL2 Interview

Interviews — ESL2

[START ESL2.MP3]

INTERVIEWER: Let's hope it works. Hello, hello. I should probably test this. Okay. But we're going to assume it works. Okay. Just for the record this is Monday, April 2nd, and I am meeting with ESL2. [Inaudible]—record time, trying to fix the thing. Okay. So just to sort of explain to you what I'm doing, this is still part of the project that I was doing last semester that I was collecting essays for. But my supervisor and I sort of agreed that we needed a little bit more than just looking at the essays, so we kind of wanted to get a sense of how both students and instructors kind of read the essays, and what they would say about them, that kind of thing. So I gave you these essays, sort of a version of the assignment that we had, and you recognize it because you did this assignment.

ESL2: Mm-hmm.

INTERVIEWER: And the reason I labeled the three essays Hyacinth, Tulip, and Daffodil, was so that they would, you know, be anonymous and there was no, you know, if I labeled them essay 1, 2, and 3, there might be, in your mind, sort of a ranking or whatever, and there isn't.

ESL2: Mm-hmm.

INTERVIEWER: So that was it. So what I would like to do is get—first get a sense of you, from you, overall about—well, let's start with one at a time, first. Okay? How's that? Let's do it that way. Let's look at Hyacinth. And how did you rank Hyacinth yourself? Because I asked you to do it two ways, to rank it as how you—what you thought about it, and then—

ESL2: [Unintelligible] a professor would do.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Yeah. So what did you think about Hyacinth?

ESL2: I ranked it as good, and I said the professor would rank it as good as well.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Good. Can you tell me a little bit about why good?

ESL2: I think that, like, it makes—it meets the requirement of the professor to, like, compare Ellis and Winterton's [phonetic] essay.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: And also—oh, I have notes [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Oh good.

ESL2: So. I like this essay and how Hyacinth connects those authors together to get a brand new view of the whole situation.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: I would be careful though about using, I think I agree, and I like, because it says very—like, in the assignment that your opinion is not, like, relevant, and Hyacinth says, like, all the way, like, right here, it says I agree with Winterton [phonetic].

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: Or I think, and stuff like that, so.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And so that really stood out to you. Okay. So you would—how—if I sort of broke this into categories and asked you about the content, what would you say about the content?

ESL2: Content?

INTERVIEWER: Is it clear, is it—

ESL2: It is.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah?

ESL2: Clear, and it's well organized.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Well organized. How about, was there enough detail, do you think?

ESL2: Mm-hmm. Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. How about—you mentioned personal opinion. Did Hyacinth use anything besides personal opinion to make a point or—?

ESL2: Yeah. Like, the quotations from Winterson or Allison.

INTERVIEWER: Oh good, okay. Okay.

ESL2: So that's [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Good.

ESL2: Hyacinth used that, so.

INTERVIEWER: How about the language and the grammar and the vocabulary?

ESL2: I think the language and grammar was fine, except for, like, a few grammar mistakes or, like, spelling mistakes.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay.

ESL2: Yeah, like, in here, it's right on the first page. It's like, there's this N in there.

INTERVIEWER: Ah.

ESL2: [Unintelligible].

INTERVIEWER: Yeah, good, okay.

ESL2: There's a missing A, but other than that, I mean, it was good.

INTERVIEWER: It was good, okay. Appropriate sort of academic level, do you think? Was this, like—

ESL2: Mm-hmm.

INTERVIEWER: —a university student?

ESL2: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah? Okay. Okay. How about—what was the next one.

ESL2: Next one.

INTERVIEWER: The next one was Tulip. Daffodil. Tulip, Tulip.

ESL2: Tulip.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So tell me, how did you rank Tulip?

ESL2: I ranked it as good, and I said that the professor would rank it as bad.

INTERVIEWER: Ah, interesting. Okay. Why the difference?

ESL2: Because I think that this sounds like ESL students.

INTERVIEWER: It does. Tell me what—tell me what suggested some ESL student to you.

ESL2: Because—so, like, right here. A person must first ask himself. So this doesn't, like, usually happen in English. Because a person could be either male or female.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: But in some languages, like, person can have just, like, male gender, like [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Right. Okay.

ESL2: So that's what I would, like, see as ESL.

INTERVIEWER: Ah, interesting. Okay. So that was a—

ESL2: And sometimes there's, like, a grammar mistake. And at the end, there's something kind of messed up. Or maybe it was the other essay, where, like, there was like a sentence that just didn't make sense, like, with the words and everything.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. And so was it just because you were—it sounded like an ESL student to you that you think the professor would label it as fair or—?

ESL2: No, I think that the professor would label it as fair because first of the sometimes grammar and then also because it—I think—didn't it say it was supposed to be five pages?

INTERVIEWER: Yes. Yeah.

ESL2: Yeah. And it's just three pages.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: So—and also the font is much, much bigger, so—

INTERVIEWER: Ah, okay. All right. Interesting, interesting. Tell me—can you tell me a little bit more about what you liked about it? Why you would say it was good?

ESL2: I think that this, Tulip, student Tulip has—

INTERVIEWER: It's funny calling a student Tulip, huh? [Laughter]

ESL2: It is. Has great idea in there, but I would kind of [inaudible] Tulip explained it more.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Can you give me, like, maybe an example of a spot where you didn't think it was as developed as it could be?

ESL2: Yeah. Like, here. If you sit and think about all that you can feel, hear, see, smell, and taste, you will go crazy, because everything can be applied to a sense. I would explain this more in, like, detail. Maybe give some examples of that.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Excellent. Good.

ESL2: And also there's something, like, ultimately society. I wasn't really sure what that was supposed to mean, so I just kind of think that that would need some explanation to it.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Good. Good. Interesting. Good comments.

ESL2: And then at the end, the whole, like, the whole ending paragraph, like the first four sentences, it sounds like just a list of things.

INTERVIEWER: Oh okay.

ESL2: The sentences are not, like, connected together in any way.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Mm-hmm.

ESL2: So I would probably try to connect them more.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: Or put them into some context.

INTERVIEWER: Good. Good. Oh interesting comments. And how about the last one? How about Daffodil?

ESL2: Daffodil.

INTERVIEWER: Daffodil.

ESL2: Okay. I had one problem in here. Daffodil didn't use Allison at all.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: Like, Daffodil mentions Allison at the beginning, but then there's just Winterson, Winterson.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So that—so Daffodil didn't really follow the assignment per se.

ESL2: So I said fair, because, like, the thing was just basically half of the assignment. Just Winterson.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: And then I think the professor would rank it as fair as well.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. And so tell me some of the other things that you liked and didn't like about this or some of the other—would you guess that this was written by a native speaker of English or an ESL student?

ESL2: It could be both, probably.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: But more probably native English.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: But still, I was surprised by the quotes, like, right at the beginning, because I don't think that's supposed to go in the essay, so—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

ESL2: So I just kind of wrote it there, and—

INTERVIEWER: Good.

ESL2: But Daffodil has, like, great comparisons in here. Like, here it says imagination is the power to form a mental image of something that is neither perceived as real nor present to the senses. Then it has, like, the reality compared to it, kind of. And also—I think, like, Daffodil did a great job with Winterson but if Daffodil did, like, the same great job with Allison as well, it would be, like, the best essay overall.

INTERVIEWER: Oh interesting. Okay. Good.

ESL2: Yeah. So, like, in here, I like how Daffodil finds what Winterson compared the art to, like, here it says comparing art to religion someplace and art to love, and what else was there? Yeah. So, that was kind of, like, great observation skills maybe. Like in—

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. That's great.

ESL2: [Inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Very helpful. Good.

ESL2: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Wow. And what were your comments at the end?

ESL2: Hmm, just—I like the essay, I'm just missing Allison's point of view and the connection between those two essays.

INTERVIEWER: Great. Wonderful. Oh, this is really a huge help. Thank you. And really nice, detailed, detailed comments, so this is going to help me a lot. Good. Good. Great. Okay. Well, that's it. Let's talk about this now.

ESL2: Okay.

[END ESL2.MP3]

Appendix B.12: Transcription of NSS1 Interview

Interviews — NSS1

[START NSS1.MP3]

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible] All right. So I asked you to look at these three essays, and [inaudible] class. It's slightly different, I think, than the way he worded it.

NSS1: [Unintelligible] let you go.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. Yeah. But let's look, and they're named from flowers just because I didn't want any—to put any name on it that sort of had any kind of gender orientation or numeric ranking orientation, so that you would just sort of take it as it was. And I asked you to sort of decide if each one was good, fair, or poor in your estimation, and also if you think the instructor would also evaluate it the same way. So let's look at Hyacinth. What did you—what did you say about Hyacinth?

NSS1: I ranked it good, and I also thought, like, a professor or a teacher would as well.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: Just because, just, like, the introduction was really strong and stated the point, and everything just branched off from that. And tied all together and brought in new ideas that even when I read the story I had never thought about.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Good.

NSS1: And it just made you think, like, and it made you understand, like, the writer's point of views and it was very, very strong.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Let me ask you about sort of the structure and organization of that essay.

NSS1: Okay. They started out with Winterson first, which is what the instructions said, and then brought Allison, is that—yeah, Allison, into the writing and like, talks about how they agree and disagree, and it was very, like—it was, like, perfect. Like, there was really no other way to explain it.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: Like, it was just really, really strong, what they said, and there weren't too many—I don't even think there was a quote from Allison in here, but just the way they brought in her views was—

INTERVIEWER: So it seemed balanced to you?

NSS1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Let me ask you about the language and grammar [inaudible].

NSS1: There was a couple, I think, just lazy typing mistakes.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: Which happens to everybody. But otherwise I thought the way they organized, like, the paragraphs and sentences were correct.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: In their [inaudible]. There's a couple, like, one of the paragraphs is really big. They probably could've separated it into two. But just the ideas were all together, like, every time they changed ideas it was a new paragraph. It wasn't like, oh yeah, and then started a different idea.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. So good transitions. And if I asked you to tell me if you thought this writer was a native speaker of English or a non-native speaker of English, could you tell either way? Were there any indications [inaudible]?

NSS1: I think this one just because the use of language was very broad, I'd have to say it was a native speaker.

INTERVIEWER: Native speaker, okay.

NSS1: Just because it was, I don't know, it was just more eloquent.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: Does that make sense to you?

INTERVIEWER: Sure. Sure. Excellent, okay.

NSS1: Just because, you know, it wasn't choppy. It was—it flowed.

INTERVIEWER: You felt it flowed.

NSS1: It worked.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. How about, which one was next, Daffodil? Tulip. [Inaudible]. How would you rank Tulip?

NSS1: I said that this was poor.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: Just, like, I know—just even looking at it, the font, like, it's huge.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: And so if you would—I don't know if there was a page requirement or not, but, like, if you were to make it normal it would've just, like, been a page and a half worth of writing, and—

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: It was very scattered and didn't have much of a focus to it.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Do you think an instructor would've rated it differently than you?

NSS1: I don't think so. It was very—it was just all over the place.

INTERVIEWER: So organizationally it wasn't well presented. What about some of the positives from Hyacinth, like transition from paragraph to paragraph?

NSS1: That was pretty decent. The structure of the paragraphs were well done, and the sentences. I didn't like how he called it Miss Winterson—or she, Miss.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: It's just—I think it's proper just to say Allison and Winterson.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. How about balance? Like Hyacinth you said was pretty balanced in terms of talking about Winterson and talking about Allison.

NSS1: This was—it was really just all over the place. Like, one—like in the paragraphs it would talk about Allison, and then it'd switch to Winterson, and the quotes, like, really don't tell you where they're from. Like, I'm sorry, I don't have the book obviously to go back and look which reader was on page 49 and which was on 604.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: But—

INTERVIEWER: How about language for this one?

NSS1: I have to say that it was a non-native.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: Just, like, it was well put—like, the language was well put together, but it was just—the ideas were just so choppy that it seems like it wouldn't be [inaudible].

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Okay. And how about Daffodil?

NSS1: I kind of ranked this—myself I ranked this as between good and fair.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: And I said that an instructor probably would've said it was fair.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. And tell me why the difference between the instructor [inaudible]?

NSS1: I really just liked the way that it was put together. Like, I liked how they analyzed the titles of the thing. Because I would've never thought to analyze just the title, to begin with, but I think that the—a professor would want more in depth into the reading.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: And I kind of see where that needs to be taking place, like they—they get into the reading more, but it just—I think it needed to be more focused on the readings and not so much the title. I liked how they brought in the quote from, like, the opening, or the opening starts with a quote from somebody else, which is something completely different that I have never done, but it was just—it's very—it was very focused and on key of what was asked.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: And.

INTERVIEWER: Balanced, would you say?

NSS1: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: It just—it answered everything. Some of the paragraphs were larger than I think needed to be, and there's a few grammar, like, just a few mistakes there, but—

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Where—what kind of grammar mistakes?

NSS1: Just like a few commas and punctuation, mostly.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: More than, like, word usage. And then just the casual, like, typing mistake, double Hs where there [unintelligible] need to be, and but otherwise I think this would be a native speaker.

INTERVIEWER: Okay.

NSS1: There was just a few, like, the last paragraph, like, wasn't indented and just like [inaudible] careless mistakes.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

NSS1: That I do all the time. [Laughter]

INTERVIEWER: That we all do, yeah. Good.

NSS1: But otherwise, like, these papers were better than some I read in my class, when we had to read [unintelligible].

INTERVIEWER: Really did you have to—so you had [inaudible].

NSS1: He would have us, just, I think it was like three or four a class we'd have to go through and write 150 words about it.

INTERVIEWER: Wow.

NSS1: I think it's [inaudible] some of them were good, you couldn't really talk about them. Some of them you could write forever.

INTERVIEWER: Yeah.

NSS1: But it was just like, [inaudible] like that's the one thing I will remember. [Unintelligible] what it was.

INTERVIEWER: [Unintelligible].

NSS1: We're like, the first day, what? Something I will always remember from him.

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible] okay, well, that's it, actually.

NSS1: That wasn't bad.

INTERVIEWER: [Inaudible].

[END NSS1.MP3]

APPENDIX C:

SURVEYS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

Appendix C.1: NNS Survey

Appendix C.2: G1.5 Identity Survey

Appendix C.3: NS Survey

Appendix C.1: NNS Survey

ESL/NNS Student Survey

This survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete; please answer questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Because participation in this research is voluntary, you may stop at any time. The information from this survey will be used for PhD research examining the writing skills of ESL, EFL, and native English-speaking students at U.S. universities. Any identifying information obtained from this survey will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher, Mary Connerty and Professor Susan Hunston at the University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England, U.K. You may contact Mary Connerty at any time regarding questions about this survey or the research.

Part I: General information

96. Name: _____
97. Age: _____
98. Gender: F_____ M_____
99. Nationality: _____
100. Country of Birth: _____
101. Native Language: _____
102. Other languages spoken: _____
103. Length of time in the US: _____

Part II: Education and Future Plans

104. Did you attend high school in the U.S.? Yes_____ No_____
105. If yes, at what grade level did you first attend school in the US? _____
106. If yes, at what age did you first attend school in the US? _____
107. Are you an international student studying in the US on a student visa? Yes _____ No _____
108. How long do you plan on staying in the US? _____
109. What is your academic major or major course of study? _____
110. What is your semester standing? (1st semester, 3rd semester, etc.) _____
111. Do you plan on attending graduate school after college? Yes_____ No_____
    a. If yes, in what field? _____
    b. Where? _____
112. What profession do you wish to pursue? _____
113. In what country do you wish to work? _____

Part III: English Language Training

114. Did you study English formally (in school/classes) before coming to the US? Yes____ No____

115. If yes, for how many years? _____

116. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe the kinds of instruction you had:

Writing _____ Grammar _____

Speaking _____ Listening _____

Reading _____ Other (please explain) _____

117. Did you have informal exposure to English (e.g. TV, movies, internet) before coming to the US?

Yes____ No____

118. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe your exposure to English:

TV _____ Music _____

Movies _____ Internet _____

Other (please describe) _____

119. If yes, for how years? _____

120. Did you take the TOEFL or ILETS test? Yes____ No____

121. If yes, what was your score? _____

122. If you studied in a US grade school, middle schools, and/or high school, were you given English language (ESL) classes? Yes____

No____

123. If yes, please check appropriate boxes which describe the kinds of instruction you had:

Writing _____ Grammar _____

Speaking _____ Listening _____

Reading _____ Other (please explain) _____

124. If yes, how long did you take English language (ESL) classes? _____

125. If you studied in a US grade school, middle school, and/or high school, did you take classes with native speakers of English? Yes____ No____

Part IV: Writing Experience

126. Have you written essays and/or research papers in a language other than English?

Yes____ No____

127. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete. (e.g. a lab report for a biology experiment, a 5-page research paper for history class about an event in your country's history, a 2-page reaction paper to a piece of literature, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

128. Have you written essays or research papers in English before taking this class? Yes____ No____

129. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete (e.g. an 3-page essay about a Shakespeare play, a 5-page research paper for history class on the Industrial Revolution, a 3-page paper about my family history for sociology class, a lab report for a biology experiment, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

130. What do you perceive to be your strengths when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____ Grammar _____

Organization_____ Content/Ideas_____

Punctuation_____ Other (please explain)_____

131. What do you perceive to be your weaknesses when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____ Grammar _____

Organization_____ Content/Ideas_____

Punctuation_____ Other (please explain)_____

Thank you for your help with this survey!

Appendix C.2: G1.5 Identity Survey

Identity Survey

Date: _____

Part I: Background Information

1. Name _____
2. Age _____
3. Gender _____
4. Nationality _____
5. Country of Birth _____
6. First **Spoken** Language _____
7. Other languages spoken _____
8. Length of time in the US _____
9. What was the first language you learned to **write**? _____
10. What was the first language you learned to **read**? _____
11. I am a native speaker of English yes_____ no_____
12. I am a nonnative speaker of English yes_____ no_____
13. I speak English as a second (or other) language yes_____ no_____
14. I am an ESL student yes_____ no_____
15. I am bilingual yes_____ no_____
16. I am neither an ESL student, nor bilingual; I am _____(what best describes your language background?

Part II: Education

Please complete the chart below regarding the location of your schools, the language you used, and whether or not you had ESL instruction.

School grade	***Location (City, State, and/or Country)***	***Language used in school for instruction***	***Did you (also) have ESL classes? Yes/No***
Kindergarten			
First			
Second			
Third			
Fourth			
Fifth			
Sixth			
Seventh			
Eighth			
Ninth			
Tenth			
Eleventh			
Twelfth			
(Community) College			

Part III: Language Use

Please list in the chart below what languages you know. **Don't** include languages you studied in school only as a school subject. Tell how well you understand, speak, read, and write these languages by indicating: **1= well, 2 = some, 3 = not much**

Language	*Understand*	*Speak*	*Read*	*Write*
English				

Please indicate how you use languages **OTHER THAN ENGLISH** in the situations listed below. Use the **following scale: 1 = not at all, 2 = less than half the time, 3 = half the time, 4 = more than half the time, 5 = all or most of the time**. Circle the appropriate number.

a) Talking to my parents	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
b) Parents talking to me	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
c) Talking with brothers/sisters	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
d) Talking at work	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
e) Talking with friends	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
f) Reading/Writing at home	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
g) Reading/Writing at school	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
h) Reading/Writing at work	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
i) Emailing/texting friends	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
j) Reading for pleasure	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____
k) Dreaming (while sleeping)	1	2	3	4	5	Language_____

When you take into consideration all the situations where you use language (home, school, work, with friends, etc.), what would you say, overall, is your best language? _____

When you take into consideration all the situations where you use language (home, school, work, with friends, etc.), what languages would you say you are the most comfortable with in the following situations:

Speaking _____

Reading _____

Writing _____

Thank you for your help with this survey!

Appendix C.3: NS Survey

Native Speaker Student Survey

This survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete; please answer questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Because participation in this research is voluntary, you may stop at any time. The information from this survey will be used for PhD research examining the writing skills of ESL, EFL, and native English-speaking students at U.S. universities. Any identifying information obtained from this survey will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher, Mary Connerty and Professor Susan Hunston at the University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England, U.K. You may contact Mary Connerty at any time regarding questions about this survey or the research.

Part I: General information

132. Name: _____
133. Age: _____
134. Gender: F_____ M_____
135. Where were you born? _____
136. Where is your legal residence? _____
137. Languages other than English spoken: _____

Part II: Education and Future Plans

138. Did you attend high school in the U.S.? Yes_____ No_____
139. What is your academic major or major course of study? _____
140. What is your semester standing? (1st semester, 3rd semester, etc.) _____
141. Do you plan on attending graduate school after college? _____
    a. If yes, in what field? _____
    b. Where? _____
142. What profession do you wish to pursue? _____
143. In what country do you wish to work? _____

Part III: English Language Training

144. Have you taken any classes on analyzing the English language, such as a class on grammar or style? By this, I mean did you have a class that focused on English language exclusively, not as part of a literature class. Yes_____ No_____
145. Did you have any classes that taught writing? Yes_____ No_____
146. Was your writing instruction part of another class, like literature? Yes_____ No_____
147. If yes, in what grade(s) did you take these classes? _____
148. Were your English classes primarily literature classes? Yes_____ No_____

149. If yes, please list some of the reading you did? (Please list authors, books, poems, etc. that your particularly enjoyed)_____
_____

Part IV: Writing Experience

150. Have you written essays and/or research papers before taking this class? Yes_____ No_____
151. If yes, please give an example of a writing assignment you had to complete. (e.g. a lab report for a biology experiment, a 5-page research paper for history class about an event in your country's history, a 2-page reaction paper to a piece of literature, etc.)
_____
_____
_____

152. What do you perceive to be your strengths when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____	Grammar _____
Organization_____	Content/Ideas_____
Punctuation_____	Other (please explain)_____

153. What do you perceive to be your weaknesses when writing in English? Please check appropriate boxes:

Vocabulary_____	Grammar _____
Organization_____	Content/Ideas_____
Punctuation_____	Other (please explain)_____

Thank you for your help with this survey!

APPENDIX D:

ESSAY PROMPTS –
Essay types, writing prompts & lessons, and number of essays

Appendix D: Essay Prompts

Essay types, writing prompts & lessons, and number of essays

Rhetorical Pattern	Essay Prompt	# of essays collected
Descriptive Essay (de) Pilot[41]	Write four or more typed pages dealing with the following questions: Select one of your favorite foods, and describe it in detail. Don't just talk about taste and smell; also describe what the food looks like–perhaps noting the contrast of bright red tomatoes against green lettuce in a salad, or smooth dark chocolate against the grainy pale crumbs in a warm chocolate chip cookie. Also consider the texture and how the food feels in your mouth: cold and smooth like ice cream, or coarse and crunchy like tortilla chips, or cool and crispy like raw carrots. Then explain what the food means to you. Do you have memories of this food from your childhood? Do you eat it on special occasions? Do you eat it for comfort, to cheer you up when you're depressed? Can you only get it at a certain restaurant? Do other people share your attitudes about this food, or do they find your fondness for this food strange? You need to find a story that illustrates this food's importance to you–perhaps the story of how it came to be important to you, or one that sums up what it means in your family. As for the other questions, don't just answer yes or no to them, but write several paragraphs that explains your feelings about this food. Then explain how the food is made. Think of all the steps, all the ingredients and all the tools you will need to make this food, and write clear instructions that someone else could follow on how to prepare it. Or, if you can only get this food at a particular restaurant, explain how to get to the restaurant, where to sit, what do order and how to deal with the food when it arrives. Finally, tell the readers of your essay why they should be interested in this food, and persuade them that this food is delicious and worth eating. Do not neglect to give this essay a title. (***Fall 2005***)	7- G1.5 7-ESL 20- NS **Total # of de essays:** **7- G1.5** **7-ESL** **20-NS**
Reader-Response (rr) Pilot	1. Write an essay that compares and contrasts the qualities necessary for success in the 18th century and those needed in today's world. What qualities does Lord Chesterfield suggest were required for success in the 18th century? Which of these same qualities are required for success in the world today? Why? Which qualities are no longer required, and why not? Are there any qualities necessary for today's success that weren't required in Lord Chesterfield's time? What are they and why are they important today? You might include a discussion of the differences between our society today and, as suggested by Lord Chesterfield's letter, that of the 18th century. (***Spring 2005)*** 2. Write four or more typed pages dealing with the following: Isabella Kong writes: *Nowadays, when individualism and equality are the most prevailing ideas in the world, people may find it very hard to adjust themselves to a traditional family. The means of production have changed so that the adaptive value of the traditional family is no longer obvious. The modern family has advantages, as it will be more open and free, but it will also devastate the respect for the older generation that once was the dominant force in the*	1-G1.5 1-ESL 14-NS 7-G1.5 5-ESL 18-NS

[41] Those prompts used for collecting data for the pilot study(Module II) are marked herein. All essay responses to all prompts were used for final, full corpora creation.

Pilot	*traditional family*. (Kong, I. The Family in Society. In Haber, S. et al., eds. In Our Own Words. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. p.170) Write an essay in which you discuss the statement above, following these guidelines: • The purpose of the essay is to discuss the ways in which families are changing. Imagine your readers to be other college students who are interested in learning the views of their peers on the topic. • You may express your opinion, but essentially you are RESPONDING TO THE READINGS. You must use examples from <u>two or more</u> of the following essays: o "Traditional vs. Modern Family", textbook, pgs 168-169 o "The Family in Society", pg 170 o "Traditional Family and Modern Society in Africa", pgs 171-173 o "Bean Paste vs. Miniskirts:…..", pgs 174-176 • You must also use examples from at least <u>one</u> of the following readings o "The Married Woman", by Simone de Beauvoir, handout o "The Wife Today", by Marilyn Yalom, handout • Summarize and paraphrase ideas from the readings to which you refer. • Include at least one direct quotation. (***<u>Fall 2005)</u>***	
	3. Dorothy Allison, in her essay "This is Our World", argues that our society is too frequently hemmed in, restricted, along certain paths of belief and perception which allow for a certain smooth, outward harmony in our lives. 'Perhaps no one else is seeing what I see', Allison writes; 'If they are, I am pretty sure there is some cryptic covenant that requires that we will not say what we see' (Allison, 50). The artist, in Allison's view, is someone who seeks to shake up this 'tacit agreement about what it is not polite to mention' (50). What exactly is 'it', this reality that exists outside of the more polished manners of life in society? Allison thinks that there is a tendency in society to 'pretend and deny' (50), and furthermore, that it is the purpose of the artist to 'provoke more questions than answers' (48). What does art, in Allison's view, attempt to reveal? Is art the only force that can accomplish this truth telling? How important to art, generally speaking, is this power to uncover what is hidden? 4 full, typed, double spaced pages. ***<u>(Fall 2006)</u>***	9-G1.5 7-ESL 11-NS
	4. Spend 30 minutes surfing the Internet, taking notes on the kinds of reading you do as you surf: where did you go? what did you read? how did you read it? what did you see? what did you skip? Then, write an essay that explores Birkert's ideas apply them to your own reading practices. Your response should answer the following questions: What does Birkerts see as the difference between discovering "truth" and "managing information"? Are these two complementary, mutually exclusive, or two sides of the same coin? And, your analysis of your internet experience should consider the following questions: To what extent did your reading on the Web demonstrate the "loss of depth" or "lateral" reading that Birkerts talks about? To what extent did it create a different kind of reading? To what extent did it involve "wisdom" and "resonance" as he defines them? Your essay should either support and extend Birkerts' views or take a position that opposes his or offers alternative insights.***<u>(Spring 2007)</u>***	5-G1.5 5-ESL 14-NS **Total # of rr essays: 22- G1.5**

		18-ESL **57-NS**
Compare-Contrast (cc) Pilot	1. Choose one of the following and write a 4-5 page essay: A. Write an essay that argues how the research on twins reported by Holden and/or the concepts of cloning discussed by Kolata challenge Sartre's assumption that people are free to shape their own destinies. B. Write an essay that argues how Sartre's existential philosophy relates to Twain's satirical condemnation of man's nature and Moral Sense. **(*Spring 2005*)** 2. Jeanette Winterson, in Imagination and Reality, describes the role of the audience for art as itself a pretty demanding one. Just purchasing or exposing oneself to art is not enough, according to Winterson. Rather, one must truly open oneself up to it. 'Money can buy you the painting or the book or the opera seat, but it cannot expose you to the vast energies you will find there', Winterson writes (601). 'Love is reciprocity and so is art. Either you abandon yourself to another world that you say you seek or you find ways to resist it.' What does Winterson mean by 'reciprocity', and why does she use this word to describe art? 'Art is dangerous', Winterson insists (601). What is it that art exposes us to, that has danger in it? Allison touches on a similar issue when she talks about how it is the business of art to disturb, to 'provoke uncertainty' (48). Art, in Allison's view, 'should make us think about what we rarely want to think about at all' (48). Write your essay on the following topic: Is Allison's theory that art should unsettle us, like or unlike Winterson's view that art involves 'reciprocity'? Allison indicates that art should turn our faces towards something that we otherwise would resist seeing. How does the resistance which Allison finds in the viewers of art compare to the claim made by Winterson, that we should 'abandon' ourselves to the art we experience? Please note that I am not asking whether you agree or disagree with the authors, whether or not you like their theories. Your opinion is irrelevant here. Here, we are talking about synthesizing the authors' positions and making an argument about the similarities and/or differences between Allison's and Winterson's ideas. Must be 4-5 typed, double-spaced pages. ***(Fall 2006)*** 3. After choosing a focus on which to advance your argument, use Winterson's ideas about the imagination, money culture and symbolic reality to analyze an idea or example from Ewen's essay in which he discusses how style affects marketing and sales. ***(Spring 2007)***	1-G1.5 2-ESL 15-NS 8-G1.5 7-ESL 11-NS 7-G1.5 5-G1.5 15-NS **Total # of cc essays:** **16- G1.5** **14-ESL** **41-NS**
Annotated	1. As part of your research report, you will need to find three academic sources	1-G1.5

Bibliography (ab) Pilot Pilot	in addition to our assigned readings on the topic of animal research. We are not interested only in scientific reports that set forth data, but also persuasive or argumentative essays that serve to interpret the data, such as the excerpt from Hans Reusch's book, Slaughter of the Innocent, or Constance Holden's article, *Identical Twins Reared Apart*. One you have found your sources, you are required to write an annotated bibliography for all sources, including the assigned texts. Remember to include in your annotation a brief statement of the overall purpose and methods of the author as well as a statement of how you will use this source in your research report. (***Spring 2005***) 2. See below for the research prompt for this assignment. Your research project will be made up of two important parts: the annotated bibliography and the research essay itself. An annotated bibliography is "a list of citations to books, articles, and documents. Each citation is followed by a brief (usually about 150 words [maximum]) descriptive and evaluative paragraph, the annotation. The purpose of the annotation is to inform the reader of the relevance, accuracy, and quality of the sources cite" (www.library.cornell.edu). Your research must include a MINIMUM of three (3) appropriate sources in addition to the at least two (2) of our class readings. You may use additional sources, such as interviews, personal histories, etc., but these do not count as your minimum of three published sources and/or the two class texts. You will have a minimum of five entries in your annotated bibliography. (***Fall 2005)*** 3. The annotated bibliography and research paper will not really be different from the first two papers. The major difference with the third paper is that you will have to find the source yourself. This means that you will need to find an essay on art, theory of dramatic art, theory of a relation between art and commerce, theory on the psychology of art- some article or chapter in a scholarly work that makes an argument about art. There are different ways to go about locating a topic for the third paper; students must locate a source independently, and more importantly, develop an analysis of a source on your own. In other words, using the Allison and Winterson essays as a starting point, what would you like to explore, argue, prove about art that would require more than the two essays in order to make a case? ***(Fall 2006)*** 4. Choose a piece of art—painting, sculpture, music, essay, poem—that speaks to you or interests you, one that you like. Copy or print this image and bring it to class (it should be included with all drafts). A. Find five sources *in addition to* the ones in our text that discuss, evaluate or analyze the artwork you have chosen and/or the genre and/or the purpose of art (what art can or should do, and why art is important). These sources must provide more than standard background information on the artist or your chosen work, and must include at least (1) newspaper and/or magazine article, (1) book and (1) online academic source. All online sources must be scholarly articles. B. Create a bibliographic entry for each source. C. Read the sources and, under each entry, write a short paragraph that concisely summarizes the author's main points. ***(Spring 2007)***	3-ESL 13-NS 6-G1.5 3-ESL 14-NS 8-G1.5 6-ESL 3-NS 7-G1.5 5-ESL 19-NS **Total # of ab:** **22- G1.5** **17-ESL** **49-NS**
Research Report (rp)	1. See annotated bibliography assignment # 1 above. Write a 4-5 page essay in which you compare or contrast one of the arguments with Reusch's assertions, analyzing and ultimately evaluating their conclusions, and presenting your	1-G1.5 3-ESL 16-NS

Pilot	position on the subject. (***Spring 2005***) 2. RESEARCH PAPER TOPIC (5-8pages of text): *Your topic must be chosen from the two options below. Choose ONE only*. OPTION 1: There is an ongoing debate among U.S. citizens about how immigration influences peoples' identity. Many believe that America is a "melting pot" in which people originally from other countries blend together to become Americans. Others use the metaphor of the "tossed salad", saying that new and old Americans mix together but retain much of their original identity like the different ingredients in a salad that retain their individual characteristics. Still others feel that immigrants do not assimilate into American society but remain "outsiders" who are loyal to their countries of origin and who primarily speak their first languages. People who hold this view often feel that immigrants threaten the integrity of American society. Write an essay in which you explore the topic if immigrants and identity. How do the majority of immigrants define their identity? Based on what you find in your research, do immigrants assimilate into society, or do they remain separate from the rest of society and unchanged by the immigration experience? The purpose of this essay is to use research to support your conclusion about the identity of immigrants. Imagine your audience to be people born in the U.S. who would like to debate the factors that influence the identity of immigrants. OPTION 2: Interracial marriage is becoming much more common in the U.S. However, there are still many people who oppose the idea of marriage between people of different racial or ethnic backgrounds. Write an essay/research paper where you argue an opinion about interracial marriage using research	7-G1.5 3-ESL 19-NS
Pilot	sources to support your position and convince your readers. Imagine your readers to be young, unmarried people who have not made up their minds how they personally feel about interracial marriage. (***Fall 2005)*** 3. The research paper will not really be different from the first two papers. The major difference with the third paper is that you will have to find the source yourself. This means that you will need to find an essay on art, theory of dramatic art, theory of a relation between art and commerce, theory on the psychology of art- some article or chapter in a scholarly work that makes an argument about art. There are different ways to go about locating a topic for the third paper; students must locate a source independently, and more importantly, develop an analysis of a source on your own. In other words, using the Allison and Winterson essays as a starting point, what would you like to explore, argue, prove about art that would require more than the two essays in order to make a case? This is NOT an opinion paper; you must back up all claims you make with published, appropriate sources. You will be using skills we will develop in class which involve reading, summarizing, analyzing, explaining, evaluating, and investigating. Appropriate sources include library books, academic journal articles, reference materials. **Your research must include a MINIMUM of two (2) appropriate sources in addition to our two (2) of our class readings**. You may use additional sources, such as interviews, personal histories, etc., but these do not count as your minimum of three published sources and/or the two class texts. ***(Fall 2006)*** 4. Write an essay that discusses your chosen work of art in the context of Allison's claims, as well as interacting with at least three of your additional sources. To help you choose a focus for your paper, consider the following questions:	9-G1.5 8-ESL 8-NS

	Why do you like this particular work of art? Does the image speak to some "protected" feeling that you have? What makes your image art? Does your image fit Allison's criteria, or does it challenge her judgments? What does your research tell you about how others react or respond to your image? How do these other viewpoints compare/contrast with yours? Are these differences important? Do these other responses change your opinion of the work? Do they affect the art itself? Note that you are not to write a paper that discusses your chosen work of art. This essay is a discussion and definition of art—how do you define art? what is your criteria for judging art? etc— not a research paper on the life of the artist. Use your chosen piece of art only as an example to support your argument, much in the same way Allison uses the Jesus picture or the photographs to explain and support her definition of art. You must back up all claims you make with published, appropriate sources. You will be using skills we will develop in class which involve reading, summarizing, analyzing, explaining, evaluating, and investigating. Appropriate sources include library books, academic journal articles, and reference materials. **Your research must include a MINIMUM of two (2) appropriate sources <u>in addition to</u> our two (2) of our class readings**. The piece of art you chose may be considered one of your sources. You may use additional sources, such as interviews, personal histories, etc., but these do not count as your minimum of three <u>published</u> sources (our two class readings and your additional source) plus the piece of artwork you chose ***<u>(Spring 2007)</u>***	7-G1.5 4-ESL 16-NS **Total # of rp essays: 24- G1.5 18-ESL 59-NS**
Critical Analysis (ca) Pilot	1. Choose one printed advertisement from a magazine and analyze both the images and text, using techniques, vocabulary and methods from at least two of the following of our readings: Berger 1999; Bordo 1999; Kilbourne 2000; Bordo 2003. Your essay should be 3-5 pages long. (***<u>Spring 2005)</u>*** 2. Choose ONE of the following questions to discuss: A. How would *Dorothy Allison's* theory, where she hopes for the artist to reveal "the wonder and the astonishment of the despised and ignored"(48), appear when considered under the lens of Percy? Or, on the other hand, is there something in Allison which has an affinity for Percian sovereignty? I am thinking of the passage where Allison talks about how people are reluctant to come forth with their own honest experience, for fear of being revealed somehow: "If we were to reveal what we see in each painting, sculpture, installation, or little book, we would run the risk of exposing our secret selves, what we know and what we fear we do not know, and of course incidentally what we truly fear" (50). B. If we turn to *Jeanette Winterson*, and consider her criticisms of subjective experience, we can obtain an opportunity to scrutinize Percy's argument more carefully. To Winterson, "our minds work to continually label and absorb what we see and to fit it neatly into our own pattern. That done, we turn away. This is a sound survival skill but it makes it very difficult to let anything have an existence independent of ourselves" (603). How would Winterson be likely to appraise Percy's concept of sovereignty, especially as it involves the experience of objects presented by artists, or art itself? Essays must be 5-6 pages long, typed, double-spaced. ***<u>(Fall 2006)</u>***	1-G1.5 3-ESL 6-NS 8-G1.5 7-ESL 12-NS

	3. Find 2-3 advertisements that contain both visual and textual elements. Copy or print the ads to include with your drafts. Like Ewen and Berger, Hochschild emphasizes advertising—she begins her essay with a close reading of an ad for Quaker Oats Instant Oatmeal—in her discussion of "the industrialization of daily life" (215). Using Hochschild's work as a model, write an essay that offers a close reading of one of your chosen advertisements and advances an argument that extends Winterson's, Berger's and Ewen's ideas. Focus your essay sufficiently so that your argument can be fully developed in five pages. You may wish to consider the following questions to get started: What qualities do the advertisers want you to associate with the product? Does the paradox of style—that "part of its significance is that it will lose significance"—apply? What seems to be the driving force of the ad? How does the ad promote compulsive consumption? Desire? Consumer control? What does the ad tell you about art, commerce, our culture and daily lives? ***(Spring 2007)***	7-G1.5 4-ESL 11-NS **Total # of ca essays:** **16- G1.5** **14-ESL** **29-NS**
Essay Exam (ee) Pilot	Take-Home Essay (70% of your score) Please chose ONE (1) of the questions below and answer as thoroughly and completely as you can in one page of text. In other words, your answer may NOT go beyond one page of double-spaced, 12-point Times Roman Font text with MS Word default page margins. This essay will be due on Friday, October 21 by 2:00 noon. No late work will be accepted. Please remember the following: A. None of these questions ask for your opinion. I am interested in your critical assessment of texts – **NOT YOUR OPINION**. B. You **MUST** use at least **TWO (2) of the texts** listed in your answer. C. Before beginning your essay, please indicate **CLEARLY** which question you will be answering. D. Before beginning your essay, please type the **names of the two** or more texts to which you will be referring in your answer. E. Because this is a take-home essay, I will take off points for typos and grammatical errors. F. You must download your essay onto the appropriate ANGEL dropbox by the due date/time or you will automatically loose 10 points. The only readings you may use to answer your essay question are only the following: • "The Social Sense" by Diane Ackerman • "The Wife Today" by Marilyn Yalom • "The Married Woman" by Simone de Beauvoir Please choose ONE (1) of the following questions to answer: 1.Compare the different perspectives on the social meaning of food preparation as discussed by Ackerman with de Beauvoir's analysis of the domestic duties of women in different cultures. 2.How does Yalom's article, "The Wife Today", suggest that convenience foods, fast foods, and the disappearance of the family dinner reveal new trends when compared with Ackerman's discussion of the traditional role food has played in various cultures? (***Fall 2005)***	7-G1.5 6-ESL 19-NS **Total # of ee essays:** **7- G1.5** **6-ESL** **19-NS**

APPENDIX E:

CATEGORIES OF *I/WE* USE WITH EXPLANATION AND ENVIRONMENTS

Appendix E: Categories of *I/We* Use with Explanation and Environments

Categories of *I/We* use with explanation and environments

***I/We* as the representative**	***I/We* as the guide through the essay**	***I/We* as recounter of the research/writing process**	***I/We* as source of supporting information**	***I/We* as opinion-holder**	***I/We* as originator**
-Usually *we/us* Writer is proxy for larger group -Pronoun signals ownership of some universal or common property -Can suggest hypothetical situation -Can reduce writer to a non-entity	-Shows reader through the essay -Usually *I* -Foregrounds person who organizes, writes -Informs readers of goal -Locates reader and writer together in time & place -draws readers' attention to obvious points	-Describes/ recounts steps of research/writing process - Explains procedures/ methodology	-Writer inserts personal experience as support/ evidence -Narratives	-Elaborates an argument -Shares opinion, attitude, view -Expresses agreement, disagreement	-Writer states claims/ results -Writer claims authority -Writer claims advancing knowledge in essay -Writer advises reader -Most face-threatening
Clauses/ Phrases: - ….causes us to…, we know that….	Verbs: *-see, note, observe, examine* *-Will* +verb like *discuss, look,* etc. Clauses/ Phrases: *-So far we have seen….* *-In my essay, I will…* *-I will examine…*	Verbs: *– Work, interview, read, collect, record* Clauses/ Phrases: *-When I interviewed….*	Verbs: *– remember* and action verbs Clauses/ Phrases: *-I remember a time when…* *-we emigrated to…*	Verbs: *– think, feel, believe, agree* Clauses/ Phrases: *-Contrary to what X states,….* *-we can determine from X….*	Clauses/ Phrases: *-To me…..,* *-As I see it….*

APPENDIX F:

SAMPLE G1.5 CONCORDANCE LISTS

APPENDIX F: SAMPLE G1.5 CONCORDANCE LISTS

1. Concordance Sample of G1.5 Instances of *We:*

very important part of our life sine	we	can not live without
This cake means a lot to me because	we	enjoy it together as
to me and the rest of my community .	We	enjoy it together like
sibly eat . At the end of the dinner	we	can enjoy the dinka
ryone just eats so much . For Bajram	we	celebrate the ending of
ses until they look new . For Bajram	we	make a lot of different
that everyone was going to love it .	We	arrived at the wedding
om where my mom left the baklava and	we	took two pieces because
klava and we took two pieces because	we	could not wait another
ch Bajram . Bajram is a holiday that	we	celebrate after
bration of being able to have food .	We	celebrate Bajram with
family , friends , and most of all ;	we	make a lot of food .
ajram is my favorite holiday because	we	make good and healthy
e it is such a fun dessert to make .	We	get tired making
e there is so much work to do before	we	get to the end , to eat
to the end , to eat it . But , after	we	are done , we are so
o eat it . But , after we are done ,	we	are so proud of
, we are so proud of ourselves that	we	made it and everyone is
ing to appreciate the hard work that	we	put in . The way mom
that go in it are very sweet . When	we	start the baklava , we
sweet . When we start the baklava ,	we	get a big bowl , to mix
xed together with flour . Also while	we	mix these ingredients
dients together , they get sticky so	we	have to add water , but
sticky so we have to add water , but	we	have to make sure that
ater , but we have to make sure that	we	are using the right

2. Concordance Sample of G1.5 Instances of *You:*

th Century and the 21st Century When	you	are in a group of
a group of people at work , what do	you	say or do ? Many people
speaking was so important that , if	you	would have spoken
rly to someone then they would think	you	were uneducated . Now ,
rtain way every time to speaking how	you	want to speak but , not
ted that still applies today is that	you	should look the person
y is that you should look the person	you	are talking to in the
the person while talking shows that	you	are confident in what
shows that you are confident in what	you	are saying . It also
you are saying . It also shows that	you	are interested in what
the person is saying . For example ,	you	might make suggestions
our boss about a project , but while	you	are talking to your
while you are talking to your boss ,	you	look away . This shows
s that youre not confident and maybe	you	do nt know what you are
Likewise , when your boss is telling	you	some suggestions on a
ou some suggestions on a project and	you	are not looking at
ou are not looking at him , it shows	you	do nt care what he is
g . Making good eye contact can make	you	self confident or
at applies today is making sure that	you	are acting yourself
shows weakness in the work position	you	hold . If you act like
s in the work position you hold . If	you	act like someone else
ally being yourself . For instance ,	you	might act like a person
k in group projects , but in reality	you	do nt do all the work .
he work . Later when your boss tells	you	that you have to do a
Later when your boss tells you that	you	have to do a project on

3. Concordance Sample of G1.5 Instances of *It:*

re different from person to person .	It	has changed from the
way to properly speak has changed .	It	has changed from
in this because he felt , not doing	it	is thought to imply
e confident in what you are saying .	It	also shows that you are
ect and you are not looking at him ,	it	shows you do nt care
hold . If you act like someone else	it	can be harder to
nish the project because you cant do	it	on your own . When your
good to talk about yourself because	it	can make a personal
e person to your left . Ultimately ,	it	is your opinion that
ecided to find this ship and destroy	it	. In the movie there is
y using animals for their research .	It	shows animals being
is important to my research because	it	shows animal
his quote supports my thesis because	it	says that people how
g of the experimentations and why is	it	inhumane . I will
e with others who did nt believed in	it	too . This happened
saw a lizard on this island , he saw	it	walk on land and then
e been able to change . For humans ,	it	has not been the same .
ng because the cat was chasing after	it	, but the cats
the cats intention was just to scare	it	to have some fun . When
nce an animal catches another animal	it	ends its life quickly
and ends the suffering . For humans	it	is the opposite from
d . The human race needs to see that	it	might have evolved from
s to the reader that they should buy	it	as well .
name is called PMC-100 series , and	it	is from a company
work with technology they just break	it	. In this advertisement

APPENDIX G:
CASE STUDY ESSAYS

Appendix G.1: 'Che' Essay
Appendix G.2: 'Pedro' Essay
Appendix G.3: 'Noel' Essay

Codes:

[#]	=	paragraph number
(#)	=	sentence/independent clause number

Appendix G.1: ‘Che’ Essay

Feel the Power to change?

[1] (1)Art is extremely powerful. (2)It might not seem powerful but art can trigger so many feelings inside a person. (3)It can change your life. (4)Dorothy Allison author of “This is Our World” describes the impact that art has had in her life. (5)Art has not had a big impact in my life but the image of Ernesto Guevara is the only impact art gives me. (6)Allison has a personal definition of art and she lives by this definition. (7)The definition of art others have is slightly different, but how art can affect a person and the world is the same.

[2] (1)Ernesto "El Che" Guevara was Fidel Castro’s right man during the Cuban revolution and sworn enemy of the United States. (2)Throughout his travels around South America, Guevara encountered many underprivileged and impoverished people who were being mistreated which made him want to seek action about their plight. (3)When he reached the Republic of Peru, he was introduced to a book about the lifestyle of indigenous Incas that detailed their idealism which could be said to be similar to communism. (4)Soon after being introduced to this book, Guevara met his future partner in crime and fellow communist Fidel Castro. (5)Guevara and Fidel joined forces and formed the revolution in Cuba that eventually overthrew the current president and instated Fidel as their dictator.

[3] (1)Guevara became the go to man for Fidel and was constantly being promoted to a higher and different position, but his focus on the people was never turned away. (2)When he because president of a cultivating plant, he was out in the fields with the people working. (3)He believed in communism and the equality it gives the people. (4)Slowly, Guevara realized that his ideals and beliefs regarding communism were different from Fidel’s interpretation. (5)In his diplomatic travels, Fidel was informed that Guevara was bad mouthing him in a diplomatic trip to Congo which led to Guevara’s resignation and the people of Cuba.

[4] (1)He described clearly moving on and joining another revolution that needed his help in the country of Bolivia. (2)Soon after his arrival, the Bolivian government’s military captured him and killed him. (3)Even though the American government was present in Guevara’s shooting, they assumed no responsibility for the fight that led to his capture. (4)The image of "El Che" is a historical representation of his life, not as the communist, but as a true leader to the Cuban people. (5)His death was not deserved.

[5] (1)In Allison Dorothy’s would not consider “El Che’s” image as art. (2)Dorothy describes clearly that art has “the power to provoke” (Dorothy 44). (3)Art has the power to induce different types of feelings. (4)Dorothy states that these feelings are feelings we have never felt before. (5)How can we feel something we have never felt before? (6)If everything we feel we compare to our personal life memories, our own feeling

database. (7)We live life by comparison. (8)What we see and feel we learn and memorize. (9)Art and situations in life only bring back past memories, but hardly ever new feelings.

[6] (1)In the image of "El Che" I can personally say that it provokes me. (2)It produces my stomach to twist and my head to spin with ideas and memories not only of my life but his. (3)When I see his image I feel hurt, heartbroken even. (4)Unfair death is one of the reasons. (5)He has seen a lot of poverty and mistreated people and this is what started his mind games to make the world a better place. (6)Most of the things he has seen I have also and I compare his life to mine and that provokes uncertainty in my life.

[7] (1)Uncertainty is also in Dorothy's criteria for art. (2)If art does not make the viewer feel uncertain about anything then it is just a picture of that person's life. (3)This uncertainty she speaks about is tied with unanswered questions. (4)Dorothy says "Art should provoke more questions than answers" (Dorothy 48). (5)When people look at art work the first step is to compare to our database. (6)If we can't find anything we then come to the questioning stage. (7)Art can usually only be described by the painter himself, since art involves too many personal feelings. (8)So we ask questions. (9)It is within human nature to find the truth and what it stands for.

[8] (1)Question and uncertainties is everything I see when I take a look at "El Che's" face. (2)Why communism? (3)Why Fidel? (4)Why Bolivia? (5)Most of these questions will forever remain unanswered, but these questions are about his life. (6)Then I ask myself am I like him? (7)Do I want to be like him? (8)What is it about him that keeps my attention? (9)My dad's job has given me the opportunity to travel at such a young age. (10)At the same time I have seen so much unfairness, mistreatment and poverty that when I look back tears just run. (11)Why was he killed? (12)Why was the American government there? (13)Where is his body (Escobar)? (14)These questions will never be answered but in my mind I have a good idea that all three questions are tied together. (15)Some of my feelings I am not able to express because the United States is just a big bubble and people living here cannot see past it. (16)That is when his image pops into my mind; (17)I want to do great things. (18) I wish I could continue his legacy of a leader, but that is just too much to ask. (19)Communist I am not, but tearing that bubble down is what I want. (20)I wish I could answer all the questions I have but in due time some will be answered.

[9] (1)Dorothy makes a clear point when she says "art…will reveal more about ourselves than the artist" (Dorothy 50). (2)Then again this idea of art is tied together with the idea of comparison. (3)When we look at an image we try and find something from our database to describe it as closely as possible. (4)If we cannot find

something exact we start comparing smaller pieces, now we have a puzzle of pieces. (5)While putting all these pieces together we learn about ourselves. (6)This is what makes art unique to everyone.

[10] (1)Puzzle pieces in my life are abundant and I still cannot find a common ground to put them together. (2)His image just brings so many puzzle pieces into my mind that it is just a big conglomeration of feelings, past issues and even things I want to do. (3)I am afraid of putting the pieces together and looking at my final picture. (4)This picture just gives me and idea of who I want to become, and it makes me very uneasy. (5)It is not the type of art that I can be in total agreement with yet.

[11] (1)"The power of art is that nod of appreciation" (Dorothy 46). (2)Art can have different views, descriptions and even interpretations pending on the person viewing it. (3)Some art work can just flash memories of your database and just automatically produce a smile in your face. (4)That is the type of art that people know, it is the art that people feel completely comfortable with.

[12] (1)As a simple image can affect who I am, art can take affect on the whole world. (2)Allison has a very pessimistic view towards our world. (3)The world is not perfect and that is a fact, but there are times that when we all unite for a good cause, good is done. (4)Good can be accomplished; (5)we just need to find a common cause for everyone which is the impossible part. (6)Art brings people together. (7)Art makes the shy speak up. (8)The truth be told, whether is good or bad. (9)Allison says "Art is not meant to be polite, secret, coded, or timid" (Allison 50). (10)Art is what a person makes of it. (11)Art can bring people together and we should take advantage of that. (12)Art makes people feel uneasy but we describe our true feelings. (13)Allison should reconsider her definition of art. (14)Allison's definition is outdated due to the fact that people live today. (15)We live, we suffer, we feel and we understand the differences between these. (16)This is what makes us human. (17)We are knowledgeable. (18)Art should provoke familiar feelings. (19)It should tell more about us than the painter, and it should defiantly leave a question mark. (20)Human nature is research. (21)If there was no question mark there would be no reason to live.

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Appendix G.2: 'Pedro' Essay

Pedro on a Horse

[1](1)There are many different components that compose the life of any given individual. (2)Art happens to be one these components, but for some of us it is complicated to define art. (3)To me art is a reflection of the human mind and it is the interpretation of emotions and experiences, within our world. (4)When experiences and emotions are combined together, the outcome is simply what I call art. (5)The name of the picture I chose for my research is Pedro on a Horse, and the artist behind the painting is no one else than Fernando Botero. (6)There are many reasons why I chose this painting, but I am only going to focus on three. (7)Primarily, it because of the good reputation Fernando Botero has given to his country Colombia, which is also my country. (8)Second, the life of any given artist is full uncertainties; this also show's that people that persevere achieve great things. (9)Lastly, it is incredible how Botero converted a painful moment of his life and created a painting that astonishes almost everyone.

[2](1)Fernando Botero has given a good reputation to my country for his distinguish artwork. (2)This man truly values his country, just as his country values him and his tremendous success that Mrs. Walt/Paris states, "Colombia calls their most famous artist el maestro, and he returns their affection. (3)He's donated hundreds of paintings and sculptures to museums in Bogotá and Medellin, as well as his entire personal collection of modern art, including works by Chagall, Matisse, Picasso and other he has purchased over the years "(Times International p 3). (4)This man has brought something more that a name to my country, he has been given the country and his people hope for a better future. (5)Colombia has been involved in civil war for more than 40 years; this is common knowledge for a native. (6)Due to this civil war it preferable for him not to live in his homeland, because he faces the danger of being kidnapped or killed (Times International p 3). (7)Therefore, he chose to live abroad, as his own form of exile.

(8)Even though the pain of being childless is the worst feeling a man can endure, it is followed by being been exile of his own homeland.

[3](1)Botero's life as an artist has been full of uncertainties, due to economical hardships. (2)However, this was not the only barrier to his success, on his interview for the Americas Botero makes and interesting point, he states:

(3)"I am and artist from The Third World, or better put, and artist who was not born among museums, not born in a well establish tradition. This makes me see things, from the start, with new eyes. Most of the European artists are tired. Starting on the day they are born, with the word art. To them, everything has already been done. They think you have to pull back so many curtains to appreciate or interpret art. Not me. I see without prejudgments, with clean eyes. My fresh eyes make thing appear simpler. Basically, I invent everything from the start. And I had to invent everything because there was nobody to lead me. I asked myself, "Let's see, what is this business of painting?"(Americas p 1).

[4](1)This simply means that he was born with the talent and the passion to created art. (2)To invent something that had been already being invented, but had no means of getting to his reach. (3)The perseverance and the passion of this artist it seems to be boundless, and that is the reason of his success. (4)As a young age he decided to dedicate his life to art, and like any artists tries to identify and create his own style. (5)These style its world famous and bring the attention of almost everyone. (6)It makes the audience wonder many emotions; (7)these emotions are different for most individuals and for some could be the same. (8)In most case when an audience admires a given work of art to the point that they feel mesmerized by it, most of the time they try to find the meaning behind it. (9)And maybe evidently would like to know more about the artist, and admire his dedication and hard work throughout the years.

[5] (1) Botero's art is very appealing it could also be disturbing, because in his work everyone is oversized. (2)This puts another prospective in the audience mind, and

triggers thoughts that could be share without worries. (3)The creation of Pedro on a horse was trigger by the dead of his four-year-old son, due to a traffic accident on 1974, when a truck rammed into Botero's car in Spain during a family vacation (Time International p 3). (4)After the accident Botero lock himself in his studio on Paris where he created a lot of work base on his lots son, he believes that this help him heal and cope with his lost. (5)Botero add that this is why art is so sacred him, because it saves him from his worst moment. (6)His other son affirms that his father has not full recovered from his loss; (7)Botero can hardly discuss anything about it and has been over thirty years (Time International p 3). (8)It is just unbelievable how Botero was able to channel most of his pain and converted is to art. (9)The sad part is that most people that admire this peace of art do not know what took to make it. (10)However sometimes it is better not to know too much, because we do not know how much can we actually handle. (11)Botero's pain and suffering was transformed into something special. (12)The way I see it, he leaves a legacy to the world that simply says, "The love that a father has for a son it cannot be measure."

[6] (1)For me this is art at its best the reputation, the perseverance, and unfortunately the tragedy. (2)However, for Dorothy Allison the definition of art is very complex. (3)There are parts that I agree with, and of course there are some parts that I do not agree with. (4)Fro example on her essay "This Is Our World" right at the beginning she states "I took the notion that art should surprise and astonish, and hopefully make you think something you have never thought until you saw it" (Making sense p 42). (5)I agree with Mrs. Dorothy here, because art should create some sore of reaction and impulse something that you never thought of getting and the art peace is what triggers it. (6)She reaffirms this later when she states, "I am sure art is supposed to have-the power to provoke, the authority of heartfelt vision" (Making sense p 44). (7)I also agree to what she says here because if you impress enough by a peace of art, it is as if it has come to be part you. (8)Later on her essay she states, "I would leave it, like the art, to make everyone a little nervous and unsure" (Making sense p 45). (9)To

an extent I would agree with this, but art for is meet to surprise and cause a pleasant feeling not to lead you into fear.

[7] (1)It is true that art could be interpret in many different forms and ways, but the ways that Dorothy Allison is depressing and they are focus on a negative spectrum. (2)Sure she is right to say that art triggers certain emotions of human beings, but it also depends on the level of maturity of the individual. (3)Through her essay she experience different types of emotions as she becomes an adult. (4)Before the essay there is a little introduction about the author, her story was sad full of pain and misery. (5)I believe that this is why she has such a negative about life, and I do not blame her because when life is hard people most of the turn bitter. (6)As for me when I see art, I see something that almost of the time impresses me. (7)I always wonder what it would feel to have a talent like that, a talent to cerate or copy something that we all are able to see day in and day out. (8)That is what I call art the ability to created, to compose, to put together something that and audience could admire. (9)Art does not need to be complicated it just need to be eye appealing. (10)Nature is where most of the artist get there ideas, the only problem is that the life of and artist is very complicated. (11)I may admire their work, but I would not like to have their live is full uncertainties.

Appendix G.3: ‘Noel’ Essay

The Meaning and Concept of Art

[1] (1)An average person in our modern day and age looks at a painting and considers it to be art because it has been proclaimed to be art by professionals like artists and art critics. (2)The thought that maybe these professionals are wrong never crosses the individuals mind nor does he try to define the true meaning of art. (3)The true question at hand is what is the criterion for art in this modern day and age? (4)Two theories that derive from this question base their answers on the historical precedent of previous art and the aesthetics that art provides. (5)The three authors that provide these theories are Noel Carroll, Jerrold Levinson, and Jeanette Winterson. (6)Their ideas may be similar or contradictory but their theories are uniquely different in their own way.

[2] (1)For many centuries the definition of art has been an interesting topic debated amongst many intellectual philosophers. (2)Noel Carroll, a modern day author, asks those same historical questions today, evident in his essay *Identifying Art*. (3)He raises the questions “First of all, how do we identify or recognize or establish something to be a work of art?”(Carroll 5). (4)There are many different types of art, which make it difficult to set criterion that applies to all of them. (5)Thus, Carroll explains, in detail, the definition of art and the standards to use. (6)He uses the variable ‘x’ in this paragraph in place of a possible piece of art:

> In order to counter the suspicion that x is not a work of art, the defender of x has to show how x emerged intelligibly from acknowledged practices via the same sort of thinking, acting, decisionmaking, and so on that is already familiar in practice. …. With a contested work of art what we try to do is place it within a tradition where it becomes more and more intelligible. And the standard way of doing this is to produce an historical narrative. (17)

(7)Carroll is trying to introduce the idea that a piece of art work is considered art if it fits the criteria that is set forth by previous pieces of art. (8)This theory is probably the safest definition or procedure to use because it gives a proven piece evidence to physically compare to, but the question still remains.

[3] (1)The simple question “what is art?” has provoked much thought throughout the ages. (2)An author by the name of Jerrold Levinson attempts to answer this question in his essay *The Irreducible Historicality of The Concept of Art*. (3)He proposes to answer this widely debated topic by comparing the historical definition of art to the present. (4)Levinson proclaims that “…something is art if and only if it is or was intended or projected

for overall regard as some prior art is or was correctly regarded"(367). (5)Simply stated, a piece of artwork is considered art if it reflects upon a previously established piece of art. (7)This theory bluntly states the same idea that Carroll proposes in his theory where the authenticity of present day art is based on the precedent set forth by previously established pieces of art.

[4] (1)An author by the name of Jeanette Winterson also attempts to define art, but her methods consist of using similes and metaphors to bring about what can be considered art. (2)Winterson says, in her essay *Imagination and Reality*, that "The reality of art is the reality of the imagination"(608). (3)She is insisting that art derives from our imagination, portraying some aspect of reality. (4)Winterson's definition of art is intricate in the sense that she has criteria for what art must do in order for the artwork to be considered art. (5)Winterson writes in her essay, "We have to admit that the arts stimulate and satisfy a part of our nature that would otherwise be left untouched and that the emotions art arouses in us are of a different order to those aroused by experience of any other kind"(599). (6)Winterson is asserting that the criterions for art are based on its aesthetics. (7)She says that the emotional grasp that art emits is what defines art. (8)Based on her definition of art, historicality doesn't make a difference as long as the artwork itself touches a deeper emotion inside of the audience, thus contrasting Noel Carroll and Jerrold Levinson's definitions of art. (9)The problem with Winterson's theory is the emotional grasp that art provides may vary from person to person. (10)This proposes a problem because a large debate would take place for each individual pieces of artwork. (11)Thus this theory is not as reliable as that of Carroll and Levinson's theories.

[5] (1)Without a criterion for what art is there is no art, but in any case Noel Carroll, Jerrold Levinson, and Jeanette Winterson all give scholarly ways of defining art. (2)Carroll's theory of historical narrative is very much like Levinson's theory of historicality of art. (3)They both agree that art is based on the criteria set forth by previously proclaimed pieces of art. (4)While, on the contrary, Winterson asserts that art is based on the aesthetics of art. (5)Each author gives a well organized scholarly argument which brings us to the well researched definition of art; (6)which is, art is based on its comparison to historically declared artworks. (7)These theories are much better suited for defining art because their evidence to prove art's authenticity is physical and easier to explain the comparison between past artworks and present artworks. (8)While, the aesthetics that Winterson debates about may vary from person to person making it very hard to get a final declaration. (9)"What is art?" is still a widely debated topic that can still be undefined for centuries to come.

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